

## DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

### Processual evolution of meta-organisations in sport a lifecycle approach

Farajpour Bakhtiari, Nima

*Award date:*  
2021

*Awarding institution:*  
Coventry University

[Link to publication](#)

#### General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of this thesis for personal non-commercial research or study
- This thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission from the copyright holder(s)
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal

#### Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

# **Processual evolution of meta-organisations in sport: a lifecycle approach**

By

**Nima Farajpour Bakhtiari**

**September 2019**



***A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the University's requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy***



## **Certificate of Ethical Approval**

Applicant:

Nima Faraipour Bakhtiari

Project Title:

Organisational behaviour of Meta-Organisations in sport : A life-cycle approach

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

22 May 2018

Project Reference Number:

P70871

# Abstract

Within organisational fields, organisations may seek collective action in order to influence their environment. Formalisation of such process may entail the emergence of ‘meta-organisations’, which are organisations that have other organisations as members. The majority of the organisational literature has mostly addressed these organisational settings using theoretical constructs that, either explicitly or implicitly, assume that members of organisations are individuals. Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) pioneered a theory for meta-organisations that offsets some of the shortcomings of classic organisational theories. This study applies the theory of meta-organisations to the empirical context of sport in order to add depth to the current understanding of the evolution of meta-organisations across various stages of their organisational lifecycle.

This qualitative inquiry is informed by the concept of Processual Analysis (Pettigrew 1997) and focuses on Global Association of International Sport Federations (GAISF) as a single embedded case-study. The study takes a longitudinal approach by collecting data across two phases of retrospective and real-time. Using semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires, primary data was collected from Presidents and Secretary Generals of international sport federations. Also, secondary data was collected from the archives of the Olympic Library. Additional secondary data sources included press archives, organisational documents and historical books.

This research showcases the usefulness of meta-organisation theory for the empirical context of sports. Also, it highlights the applicability of the organisational lifecycle model as a valuable analytical tool for conducting processual research. The findings of the study show that meta-organisations can be the result of transformation of loose networks into formalised entities. It is also learnt that heterogeneity in terms of interests and resources is critical in both the process of emergence as well as stability of the meta-organisation. Furthermore, the impact of outer and inner context on the evolution of the meta-organisation is remarked. Finally, it is shown that active non-members can have a significant impact on the trajectory path of the meta-organisation. Through inserting agency as well as creating implicit hierarchies, active non-members may restore the organisational boundaries to the environmental settings prior to the emergence of the meta-organisation.

# Acknowledgment

*Whoever appeals to the law against his fellow man is  
either a fool or a coward.*

*Whoever cannot take care of himself without that law  
is both.*

*For a wounded man will shall say to his assailant  
"If I live, I will kill you. If I die, you are  
forgiven"*

*Such is the rule of honour*

*Omerta*

# Table of content

Abstract .....	7
Acknowledgment.....	8
Table of content .....	9
List of tables .....	12
List of figures .....	13
List of acronyms .....	14
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	15
1.1.    Introduction .....	15
1.2.    Background story.....	16
1.3.    Research rationale .....	17
1.4.    Research aim and objectives.....	20
1.5.    Organisational context.....	21
1.5.1.    Organisational fields .....	21
1.5.2.    Empirical context.....	22
1.6.    Thesis Structure .....	23
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	24
2.1. Introduction .....	24
2.2. Governance and processual analysis.....	25
2.2.1 Sport governance research .....	25
2.2.2. Governance failure across different modes .....	26
2.2.3. Overview of processual analysis.....	28
2.2.4. Enacting processual research .....	30
2.3. Meta-organisations through the classical lens .....	32
2.3.1. Multi-theoretical view on meta-organisations.....	32
2.3.2. Resource dependency theory .....	35
2.3.3. Agency theory .....	37
2.3.4. Stakeholder theory .....	40
2.3.5. Institutional theory .....	43
2.4. Meta-organisation Theory .....	46
2.4.1. Overview of meta-organisation theory.....	46
2.4.2. Understanding meta-organisations.....	49
2.4.2.1. Linkage between members.....	49
2.4.2.2. Openness of boundaries .....	50
2.4.2.3. Capacity of meta-organisations.....	51
2.4.2.4. Emergence of meta-organisations .....	52
2.4.3. Characteristics of meta-organisations .....	52

2.4.3.1. Strategic dimensions .....	53
2.4.3.2. Organisational dimensions .....	56
2.4.4. Meta-organisations in sport.....	59
2.5. Organisational lifecycle .....	64
2.5.1. Organisational lifecycle: an overview.....	64
2.5.2. Organisational lifecycle models.....	67
2.5.3. Lifecycle model for meta-organisations.....	71
2.6. Summary.....	73
Chapter 3: Methodology .....	74
3.1. Introduction .....	74
3.2. Research Philosophy.....	77
3.2.1. Ontology .....	78
3.2.2. Epistemology .....	79
3.2.3. Reasoning approach .....	81
3.2.4. Axiology .....	82
3.3. Research methodology.....	83
3.3.1. Theoretical approach.....	83
3.3.2. Research strategy .....	84
3.3.3. Time horizon.....	86
3.3.4. Research design .....	87
3.4. Data collection .....	89
3.4.1. Primary data collection methods.....	90
3.4.1.1. Interview sampling.....	93
3.4.1.2. Sample universe .....	94
3.4.1.3. Sample size .....	96
3.4.1.4. Sampling strategy.....	99
3.4.1.5. Sourcing the sample .....	101
3.4.1.6. Primary data management.....	102
3.4.2. Secondary data collection .....	103
3.4.2.1. Archival data .....	105
3.4.2.2. Press archives .....	107
3.4.2.3. Organisational documents .....	107
3.4.2.4. Sport history books .....	107
3.4.3.4. Podcasts.....	108
3.5. Data analysis.....	109
3.5.1. Processual framework .....	109
3.5.2. Primary data method selection.....	110
3.5.3. Thematic analysis.....	114
3.5.4. Data analysis using NVivo.....	115
3.5.5. Secondary data method selection .....	116

3.6. Summary.....	118
Chapter 4: Findings and discussion (1).....	119
4.1. Introduction .....	119
4.2. Contextual changes .....	121
4.2.1. Professionalisation .....	123
4.2.2. Commercialisation .....	127
4.2.3. Knowledge and expertise .....	136
4.2.4. Institutional resources .....	137
4.3. Existing pathways for organising the environment.....	140
4.4. Seeking formalised collection action .....	144
4.4.1. Interdependencies.....	145
4.4.2. Institutional influences .....	147
4.5. Formation .....	150
4.5.1. Seeking legitimacy.....	150
4.5.2. Counterinfluences .....	152
4.5.3. Changing boundaries .....	153
4.6. Restoration of boundaries: the role of non-members.....	159
4.6.1. Divide and conquer: spin-off meta-organisations .....	160
4.6.2. Reconfiguring the organisational processes .....	165
4.7. Summary.....	168
Chapter 5: Findings and discussion (2).....	169
5.1. Introduction .....	169
5.2. Lifecycle Review .....	170
5.3. Governance failure .....	176
5.4. Intricacies of restructuring .....	179
5.4.1. Changing contexts.....	179
5.4.2. Heterogeneity and hierarchies.....	181
5.5. Future strategies.....	184
5.6. Summary.....	190
Chapter 6: Conclusion .....	192
6.1. Introduction .....	192
6.2. Objective One .....	194
6.3. Objective two.....	196
6.4. Objective three.....	196
6.5. Objective four .....	197
6.7. Practical implications.....	198
6.8. Limitations and future research .....	199
7. References .....	201
8. Appendix .....	214



# List of tables

Table 1- Overview of research objectives.....	20
Table 2- Summary of modes of governance – adapted from Howlett and Ramesh (2014).....	27
Table 3- Orders of governance failure across different modes– adapted from Howlett and Ramesh (2014).....	28
Table 4- Overview of agency costs.....	37
Table 5- Key insights offered by classic organisational theories relevant for meta-organisations.....	45
Table 6 – Meta-organisation typology, adapted from Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012) .....	51
Table 7- Main avenues of influence for meta-organisations, adapted from Ahrne and Brunsson (2005, 2008) .....	53
Table 8- Overview of meta-organisations in sport.....	62
Table 9 – Summary of main conceptual components underpinning the theoretical framework of the research .....	73
Table 10- Main characteristics of case-study research, adapted from (Smith 2010).....	85
Table 11 – Job-title: Criteria for Inclusion.....	95
Table 12- Sampling strategies, adapted from Robinson (2014).....	100
Table 13 – Summary of interview breakdown.....	101
Table 14- Summary data collected from the archives of Olympic Library .....	106
Table 15- Sport history books as sources of secondary data.....	108
Table 16- Summary key categories and codes in NVivo .....	116
Table 17- List of key individuals frequently cited in the secondary data.....	120

# List of figures

Figure 1- Key tenets of processual analysis– adapted from Pettigrew (1997) .....	30
Figure 2- Overview of agency-principal relationships .....	39
Figure 3 – Main stimulants to drive stakeholder mobilisation, adapted from Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003).....	42
Figure 4 – Key forms of isomorphism, adapted from DiMaggio and Powell .....	43
Figure 5- Comparison of meta-organisations (e.g. associations) with business combines .....	50
Figure 6 – Two main themes of meta-organisation emergence into the field .....	52
Figure 7 – Summary organisational dimensions of meta-organisations.....	56
Figure 8- Trajectory of sport institutions over time, adapted from Beech (2004) .....	59
Figure 9 – Evolution of the Olympic Movement, adapted from Chappelet and Kupler-Mabbot (2008).....	60
Figure 10- Outlook of sport governance system, adapted from Brailsford (1992).....	61
Figure 11 – Standard firm trajectory path .....	67
Figure 12 – Organisational practices across standard stages of lifecycle, adapted from Greiner (1998) .....	68
Figure 13- Organisational lifecycle model for meta-organisation, adapted from D'ahunno and Zuckerman (1987) .....	71
Figure 14- Influential factors impacting methodological decisions, adapted from Buchnan and Bryman (2009) .....	76
Figure 15 – The influence of research philosophy on research outcomes, adapted from Schlegel (2015).....	77
Figure 16 – Outlook of the research design, adapted from Pettigrew (1979).....	88
Figure 17 – Sampling framework, adapted from Robinson (2014).....	93
Figure 18 – Sampling universe .....	94
Figure 19 – Secondary data sources.....	105
Figure 20- Processual framework for data analysis, adapted from Pettigrew (1987).....	110
Figure 21 – Flow of thematic analysis, adapted from Boyatzis (1998).....	114
Figure 22- Key search terms for document analysis .....	117
Figure 23- Summary of research methodology .....	118
Figure 24 – Four theoretical views on organisational boundaries, adapted from Santos and Eisenhardt (2005) .....	121
Figure 25- Main streams of professionalisation, adapted from Dowling, Edwards and Washington (2014) .....	123
Figure 26- Objectives of U.S.I.F.....	144
Figure 27 – Meta-organisation is split into smaller and more homogenous meta-organisations.....	164
Figure 28- Emergence of the meta-organisation into its organisational field.....	168
Figure 29- NVivo world cloud of all the interview transcripts .....	169
Figure 30- Trajectory of GAISF over time .....	170
Figure 31- GAISF reverting to an earlier organisational lifecycle following governance failure .....	173
Figure 32- Bottom strategizing to address the implicit hierarchy in order to ensure consensus.....	183
Figure 33- Membership value provided by GAISF.....	186
Figure 34- Flow of the research .....	192

# List of acronyms

AIMS- Alliance of Independent recognised Members of Sport

AIOWF- Association of International Olympic Winter Sports Federations

AIPS - International Sport Press Association

ANOC- Association of National Olympic Committees

ARISF- Association of IOC Recognised International Sports Federations

ASOIF- Association of Summer Olympic International Federations

CAQDAS- Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software

CAS – Court of Arbitration for Sport

CISS- Comité International des Sports des Sourds

EBU- European Broadcasting Union

EU- European Union

FIBA- Fédération Internationale de Basketball

FIFA - Fédération Internationale de Football Association

FIMS- Fédération Internationale de Médecine du Sport

FINA- Fédération internationale de natation

FISA- Fédération Internationale des Sociétés d'Avion

GAIF - General Assembly of International Federations

GAISF (1) – Global Association of International Sport Federations

GAISF (2) – General Association of International Sport Federations

IAAF- International Association of Athletics Federations

IASK - International Association for Sports and Leisure Facilities

IF – International Federation

IJF – International Judo Federation

IOC – International Olympic Committee

NGB – National Governing Body

NOC – National Olympic Committee

OPEC - Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries

UEFA- Union of European Football Associations

UFIS- Union Des Federations Internationales Sportives

WADA- World Anti-Doping Agency

WTF- World Taekwondo Federation

# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1. Introduction

The nature and the scope of the global sport industry has been changing over the past decades (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). As part of this evolution, the role of inter-organisational relationships and, more broadly, how sport organisations approach collective action has gathered increasing interest from scholars (e.g. Bingham and Walters 2013, Franco and Pessoa 2013, Grix and Phillpots 2011). Inter-organisational relationships are exhibited through a wide range of forms and structures, prompting scholars to examine various forms of collective action such as strategic alliances, organisational partnerships, networks and associations (e.g. Gazely and Brudney 2007, Goodwin and Grix 2011, Knoben and Oerlemans 2006). These examinations have been conducted using a number of different theoretical lenses (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). Even though this growing literature has been able to uncover meaningful insights about organisational collective action in sport, the breadth of it has also meant that there are noticeable theoretical fragmentations (Parmigiani and Rivera-Santos 2011). Also, certain empirical contexts have remained relatively underexplored in comparison to others (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). This research addresses some of the existing gaps in that literature by introducing fresh, and arguably more relevant, theoretical perspectives whilst also exploring under-examined empirical contexts.

This chapter provides an introductory overview of this study. Firstly, the background story of the research is provided in order to put the overall narrative of the study into perspective. Secondly, the research rationale is outlined to clarify why this study has been conducted and where it would be placed within the wider literature. This is further supplemented by elaboration of research aims and objectives. Next, preliminary explanations are provided regarding organisational context of the study. This is to contextualise the rest of the thesis for those who may be less familiar with the sport management literature. The chapter concludes with an overview of the structure of the rest of the thesis.

## 1.2. Background story

***“The IOC’s system is expired, outdated, wrong, unfair and not at all transparent”***

(Emmett 2015)

This was one of the many controversial statements that Marius Vizer, former president of GAISF (Global Association of International Sport Federations) included in his opening welcome speech at the 2015 SportAccord International Convention. During that event, which the sport business media later labelled as “The Battle of Sochi”, Vizer significantly criticised the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and its current president Thomas Bach because he believed that IOC’s strategies were not in the interest of international federations (IFs). However, several IFs stated that they did not share the same views as Vizer. Consequently, they decided to either suspend or withdraw their GAISF membership. Although he remained as the president of International Judo Federation (IJF), Vizer resigned as the president of GAISF after his fallout with the IOC and IFs. This was followed by more GAISF members distancing themselves from this association, to an extent that the organisation almost went into total dissolution (Evans 2015).

This occurrence showcased a governance failure as part of which several members of an association decided to cut ties with it. This was partially due to an agency problem considering that the leader of the association expressed views that conflicted with the claimed standpoint of the members of the association. Nonetheless, an institutional contradiction was observed in the sense that in several other sport organisations, which from an organisational structure perspective are associations similar to GAISF, governance failure has seldom resulted in similar course of action by members. Leaders of some of the IFs, that are also members of GAISF, have been involved in well-documented corruption scandals, acting against the interests of their members (Jennings 2011). However, the response of the members had been mostly to attempt to address the issues by proposing reforms and emphasising on a more effective implementation of principles of good governance, rather than suspending memberships and withdrawing from the association.

Such contradictions and organisational paradoxes sparked the investigation into the dynamics of organisations that are structurally similar to GAISF, particularly in sport. These entities are essentially organisations whose members are organisations themselves. In the case of GAISF, there is an association whose members are associations as well. Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) refer to these organisations as *Meta-Organisations*. Although they propose a niche yet important theory regarding the behaviour and characteristics of this type of organisations, their theory has remained under-utilised by scholars particularly in the sport management literature. Reviews of literature relating to inter-organisational relationships in sport indicate that scholars have indeed examined organisational settings like associations, that are effectively one form of orchestrating collective action (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008, Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). Nonetheless, very few have analysed such organisational settings through a theoretical lens that is fundamentally calibrated for organisations that are formed of other organisations (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). One other notable gap in this literature is related to evolution of these formalised mechanisms of collective action over time (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). Through the fresh theoretical lens of meta-organisations, this study examines the trajectory path of GAISF, as a case-study, throughout various stages of its organisational lifecycle in order to not only better understand how it emerged into its organisational field, but also how it evolved on its trajectory to arrive at a point of governance failure.

### 1.3. Research rationale

The organisational field of sport has significantly changed since sports were originally formalised at end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Gratton et al. 2012). Particularly over the past decades, sport organisations have been transforming from voluntary-run organisations into professionalised and commercialised entities (Nagel et al. 2015). Taking football as an example, this sport has evolved from being played and organised entirely by amateurs to a highly commercialised industry where an event such as FIFA World Cup generates over \$4bn in revenues (FIFA 2018, The FA 2016). Although not every sport has been professionalised and commercialised to the same extent, most organisations that administer and govern sports today are operating within more professionalised, commercialised and contextually sophisticated environments (Slack 2005). In addition to this economic evolution, sport has also continued to be an increasingly critical sector from a socio-political perspective (Geeraert, Alm and Groll 2014, Grix 2013, Storm and Nielsen 2012).

The aforementioned transformation of the organisational field of sport has been accompanied with various governance failures that have beset notable sport organisations (Ferkins, Shilbury and McDonald 2005, Hoye and Auld 2001, Dodds 2016, Dowling et al. 2018, Jennings 2011, Maennig, 2005). As a result, governance issues have been held as vital challenges facing sport organisations (Dolles and Söderman 2011, King 2014, Shilbury 2016). Considering the interest of public and private stakeholders in the sport sector, governments and independent agencies have been called to ensure governance of sport organisations is improved (Parent and Hoye 2018).

To support this effort, a significant amount of research has been carried out by sport management scholars that scrutinises governance as a topic (Parent and Hoye 2018). Similarly, there has been increased interest from scholars of organisational studies in examining the complex governance structures of sport organisations (Ferkins and Shilbury 2015b). This growing body of research has aimed to identify governance issues in sport organisations, propose guidelines and set principles in order to counter governance failures (Parent and Hoye 2018). Nonetheless, there are theoretical, methodological and empirical gaps in the literature which this study aims to address.

One of the common features of the organisational field of sport is that it is dominated by federated non-profit associations (Shilbury, Ferkins and Smythe 2013). As mentioned previously, such associations may be observed as formalised inter-organisational relationships (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). This may explain why the majority of the studies related to governance of inter-organisational relationships have focused on organisations such as national or international sport federations (Ferkins and Shilbury 2015b). From a theoretical perspective, the aforementioned literature has mostly adopted conceptual models from relatively more established fields of inquiry (Ferkins and Shilbury 2010, Shilbury and Ferkins 2015b). Therefore, there is a concentration on theories from the commercial or non-profit literature (Cornforth 2003, Hoye and Cuskelly 2007, Steane and Christie 2001, Stone and Ostrower 2007). Commonly applied theoretical frameworks have included perspective of agency, institutional, resource dependence, stakeholder, network, and stewardship theory (O'Boyle and Shilbury 2016). In fact, this study also draws from a number of these recognised theoretical perspectives in order to empower the explanatory scope of the research. More recent organisational theory literature, nonetheless, has offered alternative conceptual perspectives relating to associations which have not been sufficiently explored within in the context of sports.

Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) refer to organisations whose members are other organisations, not individuals, as meta-organisations and propose an alternative theoretical approach for examining this type of organisations. Their theory relies on the notion that organisations are different from individuals in relation to a number of fundamental factors such as power of collective action, life span and capability to access and pool resources (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Most organisational theories, however, assume that members of organisations are individuals (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Such lack of alignment between theoretical assumptions and empirical contexts has exposed the note that solely utilising classic organisational theories, such as those mentioned above, may not be sufficient to study federated organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

Furthermore, another key gap in the literature is that insufficient attention has been paid to the impact of time on organisational dynamics, including governance failure (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). As mentioned by notable scholars of organisational lifecycle studies (e.g. Greiner 1998), vital considerations such as organisational threats, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses change over time. What may be considered as a threat to a newly formed organisation may not necessarily apply in the same way at relatively more mature stages of the organisation's lifecycle (Cameron and Whetten 1981). Examining the processes that impact the organisation's trajectory throughout its lifecycle enables one to better understand how, and why, an organisation arrives at a point of governance failure (Pettigrew 1997).

The governance failure of GAISF, following the 'Battle of Sochi', provided a timely opportunity in order to address some of the gaps in the literature by examining the organisational trajectory of a case-study association in depth. This study highlights meta-organisation as one form of inter-organisational relationships. Subsequently, by utilising meta-organisation theory, the study addresses the lack of alignment between assumptions of theories used and the researched organisations in sport governance literature. This research also adopts a lifecycle approach in order to examine impactful organisational processes of GAISF's trajectory over time, from emergence to potential decay. This task is facilitated by utilising the analytical framework of 'processual analysis', which effectively guides the research across two phases of historical and real-time (Pettigrew 1997).



## 1.4. Research aim and objectives

This study examines the trajectory path of GAISF, an international sport association, through the theoretical lens of meta-organisations. The main aim is to add depth to current understanding of evolution of meta-organisations across various stages of their organisational lifecycle. This improved understanding can be useful for a number of reasons. It can help to recognise some of the influential factors that may shape the trajectory path of meta-organisations in sport. This may in turn explain why, within a certain organisational field, some meta-organisations maintain a solidified position despite governance failure whilst others are severely impacted as a consequence of a governance failure. Furthermore, this research helps in expanding the empirical scope of meta-organisation theory by highlighting sport's organisational field as a relevant arena for further research. Also, it contributes to meta-organisation theory itself by refining some of its key propositions. Moreover, utilising the concept of organisational lifecycle allows for gaining in-depth understanding of critical trajectory processes, an area where sport management literature requires further development (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018).

The table below outlines the research questions that are set as key main objectives of the study. The first question is focused on better understanding the emergence, as well as pre-emergence, phase of the meta-organisation's lifecycle. The second objective is to then assess the reaction of the stakeholders within the field to the emergence of this meta-organisation and more importantly, how such emergence may impact the field. The third objective to identify some of the critical processes that can have influential impact on the organisational trajectory of the meta-organisation, particularly in regard to its governance failure. The final objective is to understand how the meta-organisation can strategise effectively to maintain field relevance and potentially prevent future governance failures.

*Table 1- Overview of research objectives*

1	Why and how meta-organisations emergence in the organisational field of sports?
2	How does the field react to such emergence?
3	What factors shapes the trajectory path of the meta-organisation?
4	How could meta-organisations strategise in order to maintain relevance to their field and avoid potential governance failures?

## 1.5. Organisational context

The purpose of this section is to provide useful preliminary information about the empirical context of the study's case-study organisation as well as the organisational field in which it is embedded in. This contextualisation can help with digesting the rest of the thesis as not only it clarifies the view on 'organisational fields' in this research, it also offers additional familiarity with GAISF and the broader sport sector. This can be particularly helpful for those who may not be ordinarily familiar with organisational field of sport as a context for research.

### 1.5.1. Organisational fields

Before referring to the particular attributes of the case-study organisation, it is important to first expand on the concept of 'organisational field'. This could facilitate distinguishing between the case-study organisation and the environment it is embedded in. The concept of organisational fields gained attention following the seminal work of DiMaggio and Powell (1983) on institutional theory. Since then, it has become one of the fundamental pillars of organisational analysis and it has been subject to multi-disciplinary examination (Hamdache 2015, Wooten and Hoffman 2008). The growing body of literature on organisational fields has resulted in theoretical evolutions of this concept, which in turn has expanded the views of scholars on definition of organisational field over the years.

Earlier work perceived organisational field as the domain where actions of the organisation were shaped by the relationships of the network within which it was situated (Warren 1967). Such view was also witnessed in later scholarly work (e.g. Bourdieu 1990, 1993), where actions of agents were structured by the network of social relations cultivated in their respective environments. However, as studies on inter-organisational relations developed further, the view on organisational fields was also expanded and became more holistic (Wooten and Hoffman 2008). Thus, the view shifted towards a position which maintained that organisations in the same field were not necessarily restricted by geography or objectives, rather by a common institutional environment where a variety of organisations intersect across multiple areas such as products, services, suppliers, consumers and regulatory agencies (Di Maggio and Powell 1983). Subsequently, organisational field was defined as 'a community of organisations that partakes of a common meaning system and whose participants interact more frequently and fatefully with one another than with actors outside the field' (Scott 1995:56).

The earlier viewpoints may be interpreted as a fixated framing of organisational fields whereby institutional influences statically control the environment (Wooten and Hoffman 2008). Nonetheless, later work that broadened the view on this topic highlighted that organisational fields can be dynamic environments capable of evolving through entry or exit of particular organisations over time (Barnett and Carroll 1993, Hoffman 1999). Within the context of this thesis, the view adopted regarding organisational fields is closer to the latter view.

### 1.5.2. Empirical context

In order to provide background to readers that may not be familiar with the organisational field of sports, a brief overview of the case-study organisation is provided in the introduction section in order to facilitate understanding the remainder of the thesis. Formerly SportAccord, GAISF is a non-profit association which is composed of autonomous and independent international sports federations and other international organisations contributing to sport in various fields. The key goals of GAISF as an organisation include “maintaining the authority and autonomy of its members, promoting closer links between its members and any other sport organisation, coordinating and protecting common interests, and gathering, verifying and disseminating information to its members” (Olympic Solidarity 2014:38).

GAISF membership has grown in size significantly between its establishment in 1967 and 2015. Within this 48-year period the number of its members has increased from the 4 federations, who essentially initiated its creation, to over 100 organisations (Chappelet and Kupler- Mabbot 2008). The main members of GAISF are international sport federations (IFs) that govern sports at global level (e.g. FIFA, FIBA etc.). IFs are part of GAISF as ‘full’ members and represent over 80% of the association’s membership. IFs themselves are formed of national federations. For example, FIFA is formed by national football federation of countries across the world.

GAISF also has a number of ‘associate’ members that may be governing bodies of sport. However, they are involved with the sport sector in various capacities. These members include a diverse range of associations that represent a diverse group of stakeholders such as broadcasters, disabled athletes, military athletes and sport medicine experts. Examples of these associations include European Broadcasting Union (EBU), International Association for Sports and Leisure Facilities (IAKS), International Federation of Sports Medicine (FIMS) and International Committee of Sports for the Deaf (CISS).

IOC, and National Olympic Committees (NOCs) that are agents of the IOC in each country, are two key set of stakeholders that have an important relationship with the IFs. This important relationship is naturally extended to GAISF, which the association of IFs. The trio of IOC, NOCs and IFs form what is called the “Olympic Movement”. IOC has control over inclusion of IFs in the Olympic Games (from here on the Games) by virtue of exercising its authority to offer official recognition of each individual sport. NOCs also provide a similar role at national level by recognising the official national federation of each particular sport. Therefore, the IOC and NOCs have an important relationship to IFs and, as a by-product, GAISF.

## 1.6. Thesis Structure

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an introductory overview of the research which has been reported in this thesis. The background story of the research was mentioned and the rationale justifying the need for such study was highlighted. Also, the main aim and key research objectives were stated. The rest of this thesis is structured across five additional main chapters. Chapter 2 provides a comprehensive literature review and outlines the theoretical foundations of the research in more details. The literature review further expands on governance failure, particularly in relation to associations. Also, the literature review explains processual analysis in more detail and elaborates on how it can be operationalised using the relevant organisational theories and analytical tools, such as meta-organisation theory and organisational lifecycle. Chapter 3 provides a thorough account of the methodological aspects of the research. This includes clarifying the research philosophy guiding the research and methodological choices that have been made in order to conduct this research. Also, methods of data collection and data analysis are discussed in this chapter

The methodology chapter is followed by two findings and discussion chapters. As elaborated on in subsequent chapters, the research design of this study included two main phases, a historical phase and a real-time phase. Chapter 4 mostly discusses the findings related to the historical phase where the majority of the dialogue is linked to the analysis of historical data. On the other hand, chapter 5 provides a discussion around findings of the real-time phase where the focus is on analysis of primary data. The main part of the thesis is finalised with chapter 6, where concluding remarks such as key contributions and direction for future research are provided. The list of references is followed by an appendix where further complementary information is provided.

# Chapter 2: Literature Review

## 2.1. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the theoretical scope of the research. It provides a review of literature in relation to the main concepts that underpin the theoretical framework of this study. This literature review is structured across five sections. Firstly, growth in sport governance research is expanded on and the gaps that are addressed by this study are highlighted. The scope of the research is then nuanced in the context of governance failure, particularly in regard to the governance mode of the study's empirical scenario. This is followed by explanations about processual analysis as an approach to examine the aforementioned governance failure.

Secondly, attention has been paid to sport governance research that has researched meta-organisations though using classic organisational theories rather than through the lens of meta-organisation theory. In order to utilise the insights from that literature, a brief review of those organisational theories (i.e. resource dependency theory, agency theory, stakeholder theory and institutional theory) is provided. This section not only highlights useful insights learnt from previous work, but also notes some of the shortcomings that may be addressed if one adopts an alternative theoretical lens, such as meta-organisation theory, when examining sport associations.

The third section of the chapter provides a more detailed review of meta-organisation theory, the main concept that informs the theoretical framework of the research. Key arguments of the meta-organisation theory are highlighted and some of the areas where the theory needs further development are expanded on. The fourth section then elaborates on the concept of organisational lifecycle, which is utilised as an analytical tool in order to guide the processual examination of the case-study across its trajectory path. The final section provides a summary of the chapter where the important points are illustrated as the study's theoretical framework.

## 2.2. Governance and processual analysis

### 2.2.1 Sport governance research

The literature on governance has grown significantly over the past few decades, resulting in emergence of multiple theoretical perspectives on the topic (Ferkins and Shilbury 2015a). Such proliferation has led to theoretical confusions as the term ‘governance’ has been used to refer to a variety of concepts (Geeraert, Alm and Groll 2014). Therefore, it is deemed important to first define governance in the context of this particular research before discussing governance failure.

Governance is a process in which a single organisation, or a network of organisations, societies or systems, steers itself, allocates resources, exercises co-ordination and control influences (Rosenau 1995). Similarly, in the context of sports, Hoye and Cuskelly (2007:3) defined organisational governance as “the system by which the elements of an organisation are directed, controlled and regulated”. Although there are numerous ways to theoretically define governance, it has been recommended to approach governance in sport with such definitions given that they reflect not only governance within sport organisations but also across the multi-level and interconnected sport governance system (Shilbury, Ferkins and Smythe 2013).

Hoye and Cuskelly (2007) state that an effective governance system exists when the organisation is governed in a way which ensures the resources invested in the organisation by its stakeholders are safeguarded so that all the decisions that are made are in the interest of those stakeholders. The well-documented governance failures in high-profile international sport organisations indicate that governance systems in sport have often failed (Dowling, Leopkey and Smith 2018). As a result, a growing body of research has been seeking to address these governance failures (King 2016). These failures have often been characterised with systematic corruption that has led to a range of discreditable events, such as match-fixing, bribery or doping cover-ups (Winand and Anagnostopoulos 2019). According to the recent reviews of this body of literature, factors such as poor leadership, inadequate monitoring as well as inequitable governance structures have been influential causes of governance failure at sport organisations (Parent and Hoye 2018). Furthermore, this body of research has aimed to provide strategies to counter various forms of governance failure and promote principles of good governance across a range of areas such as board diversity, organisational transparency, strategic stakeholder management and equitable integrity (Winand and Anagnostopoulos 2019).

The development and transformation of the organisation should be examined in order to better understand the organisation's decay, and subsequently the governance failures it may face in the latter stages of its organisational lifecycle (Pettigrew, Woodman and Cameron 2001). Although the role of duration, or some form of time factor, may have been nuanced in the previous sport governance literature, there has been little explicit acknowledgment of the notion that constituent elements of organisational phenomenon, including governance systems and organisational structures, are in continuous evolution (Bidart, Longo and Mendez 2012). As a result, this study does not place its focus on a given point in time for examining governance failure related to a particular topic, such as the examples provided above. Rather, governance is examined processually over an extended historical period to ensure the impact of time is not reduced to a linear continuity, detached from the perpetual transformation of realities (Giddens 1991, Mugurusi and Bals 2016). Hence the analytical approach of this research is anchored to the historical evolutions of organisational dynamics (Cheah 2015). The next section discusses governance failure, in the context of this study, and explains how it is examined using a processual approach.

#### 2.2.2. Governance failure across different modes

Governance can be understood as a set of processes that aim to establish, promote and support a specific type of relationship between social actors (Klijn and Koppenjan 2000). Governance failure, in conceptual terms, is the perceived ineffectiveness of those governance processes (Merrien 1998). Generally, governance failure may occur due to lack of governance knowledge, capacity problems, policy implementation issues or lack of motivation (Dixon 2002). Nonetheless, specific reasons for an organisation's governance failure depends on the type of social actors that constitute the organisation's governance mode (Lowndes and Skelcher 1998). Early models of governance mostly focused on the role of central governments and its interplay with the open market (Williamson 1975). Therefore, 'legal' and 'market' were considered to be the main two modes of governance. However, more recent literature has noted the role of civil society as another influential social actor (Hall and Soskice 2001). This more recent literature not only has remarked the intersection between each pair of these main three actors (Treib, Bähr and Falkner 2007), it has also highlighted the collective interaction of all three whereby modes of governance are more community-based (Considine and Lewis 1999).

Current governance literature proposes four modes of for governance, with each having a different set of characteristics applicable to different organisational contexts (Steurer 2013). In addition to ‘legal’ and ‘market’ modes, Howlett and Ramesh (2014) add ‘private’ and ‘network’ to the list of overarching modes of governance. It should be noted that these modes are considered to be the distinct from each other hypothetically (Steurer 2013). In other words, such modes of governance are conceptual propositions that outline ideal governance scenarios whilst in reality there is a hybrid mode of governance in most organisational contexts (Brandsen and Pestoff 2006). Moreover, probable causes of, as well as potential solutions to, governance failure vary across different modes of governance (Howlett and Ramesh 2014). This is because each mode has its own vulnerabilities in different problem contexts. Therefore, it is important to remark the link between the organisation under study and its theoretical mode of governance in order to obtain a more contextualised understanding of its governance failure.

As far as organisations such as associations are concerned, the ‘network’ mode of governance is prevalent amongst them (Howlett and Ramesh 2014). As highlighted in the table below, the ‘network’ mode facilitates the interaction between organisations that operate under various modes of governance of their own. This may explain why governance systems in association of organisations are often rooted in this mode (Steurer 2013). Since the case-study of this research is a meta-organisation (in the form of an international association), the ‘network’ mode of governance is focused on.

*Table 2- Summary of modes of governance – adapted from Howlett and Ramesh (2014)*

Mode of governance	Governance focus	Governance aim	Prime service delivery mechanism
Legal	Legality, promotion of order in social relationships	Legitimacy, voluntary compliance	Rights (e.g. property, civil, human)
Private	Management, Overseeing of major organised social actors	Controlled and balanced rates of socioeconomic development	Targets (e.g. operational objectives)
Market	Competition, promotion of small and medium sized enterprises	Resource efficiency and cost control	Prices (e.g. controlling for externalities, supervising demand and supply)
Network	Relationships, promotion of interactor organisational activity	Co-optation of dissent, self-organisation of social actors	Interaction (e.g. network of governmental and non-governmental organisations)



The figure below summarises potential causes and solutions for governance failure in each mode of governance. As Howlett and Ramesh (2014) explain, causes of governance failure exist across two orders. The first order relates to operational failures that are caused by fundamental misalignments of the governance mode and the context of the organisation's objectives. This order of governance failure is partially reflected in the previously mentioned evolution of sports, where the alignment of governance mode with organisational contexts has diminished over time (Bradbury and O'Boyle 2017). In other words, governance systems established in sport organisations, that were initially volunteer-led social groups, have become less relevant for the professionalised and commercialised entities of today. The second order of governance failure occurs when the mode of governance is aligned with its context however the organisation lacks the necessary governance capacity (Wu and Ramesh 2014). In this case, the term governance capacity refers to "the resources and skills a governance system requires to steer a governance mode so as to make sound policy choices and implement them effectively" (Wu and Ramesh 2014: 322).

*Table 3- Orders of governance failure across different modes– adapted from Howlett and Ramesh (2014)*

Mode of governance	Potential causes of governance failure	Potential solutions for governance failure	
		First order	Second order
Legal	Information gap, lack of incentives, political interference	Systematic punishment of law breakers and rewarding law abiders	Improve the governance system's capacity in relation to accountability and responsibility
Private	Weak associational structures	Impose authority and exchange regulations	Enhance organisation's capacity of political resources
Market	Externalities, asymmetry of information, credible commitments	Providing subsidies	Improve policy making and analytical capacities
<b>Network</b>	<b>Poor steering capacities</b>	<b>Empower flow of information</b>	<b>Increased capacity of managerial expertise</b>

### 2.2.3. Overview of processual analysis

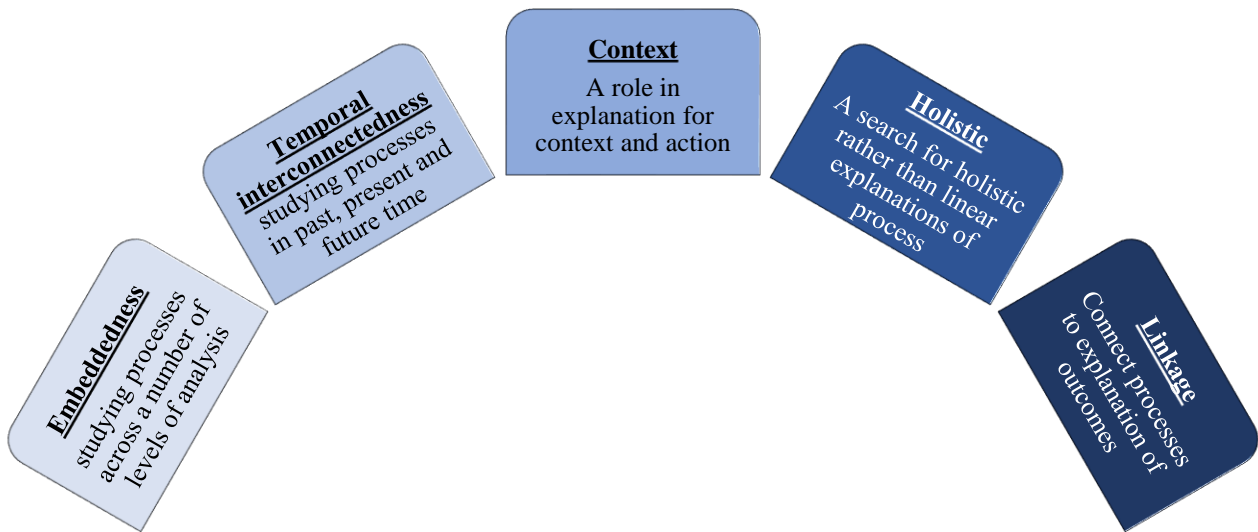
This research examines governance failure of GAISF across both orders of governance failure. In doing so, it has been considered whether, for example, GAISF's governance lacked steering capacity during the turbulent period for the association. As mentioned in section 2.2.1 of this chapter, however, this examination is not fundamentally centred around the controversial events (i.e. the battle of Sochi) that almost led the association towards complete dissolution. Although those events sparked the initiation of this inquiry, it was considered essential to look beyond them to better understand why such governance failure occurred.

It is imperative to recognise the organisational purpose of an association if one is to understand its governance system (Horch 2018). It is also important to consider how various historical and political features of the organisational environment shape the trajectory of the organisation over time (Chea 2015). Thus, this research is directed towards a holistic examination of the organisational evolution of GAISF throughout its organisational lifecycle, and not just the turbulent period of failure. In other words, the focus was more on how, and why, the association arrived at such critical crossroads and less on the endpoint itself. The effort involved in completing this task was informed by the concept of ‘processual analysis’, which is an overarching analytical framework utilised in organisational studies. Largely developed by the works of Pettigrew (1979, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1997), the purpose of processual analysis is to provide an explanation about what, why and how processes are linked to contexts and outcomes (Pettigrew 1997).

Processual analysis is not used to provide one single grand theory, instead the focus is on delivering a contextualised analysis that links the processes to the outcomes. Process, in the context of processual analysis, refers to sequence of individual and collective events, actions, and activities unfolding over time in context (Pettigrew 1997). Once a process is conceptualised as a story, it then becomes easier to compartmentalise it and observe its progression more clearly (de Coninck and Godard 1990). Effectively, processual research starts from knowledge of an outcome which then leads to backward tracking of processes in order to understand how that outcome occurred (Bizzy and Langley 2012).

The figure below presents the major tenets of processual analysis. The main assumption behind processual analysis is that social reality is a dynamic state (Pettigrew 1992). It is not a steady state, so it occurs rather than simply existing (Sztompka 1991). Furthermore, social processes are deeply connected to their contexts and simultaneously contexts are influenced by processes (Pettigrew 1987). Social actors stimulate processes and their actions are not only influenced by individual or collectively agency, but also the contexts which they are embedded in (Pettigrew 1997). They “engage patterns and repertoires from the past, project hypothetical pathways forward in time, and adjust their actions to the exigencies of emerging situations” (Emirbayer and Mische 1998: 1012). Such interchange between agents and contexts is cumulative and occurs overtime (Pettigrew 1992). In other words, events of the past will shape the conditions of future and also the events of today are the legacy of the developments in the past (Pettigrew 1997). That is why time and history are at the centre of processual analysis (Pettigrew 1997).

Figure 1- Key tenets of processual analysis– adapted from Pettigrew (1997)



#### 2.2.4. Enacting processual research

It should be noted that processual analysis is not used a theoretical proposition of its own to explain specific research questions. Rather, it provides an umbrella framework for guiding organisational research by configuring the interplay between context, actions and time (Pettigrew 1997). Based on the context of the research, different organisational theories, as well as analytical tools, may be layered into the study in order to operationalise processual analysis (Clark and Soulsby 2007, Pettigrew 1997).

Existing literature, across multiple fields, contain several examples of organisational studies that have been conducted using processual analysis (e.g. Clark and Soulsby 2007, Daunmu and Fai 2007, Francis and Sinclair 2003, Hayashi Jr, Abib and Hoppen 2019, Jack, Dodd and Anderson 2008, Lin and Darling 1997, Yazdifar et al. 2013, Yildirim 2014). Some have focused on governance modes (e.g. Mugurusi and Bals 2016) whilst some have utilised it in the context of sport (e.g. Batuev and Robinson 2018). Such precedents reaffirm the relevance of processual analysis for this research.

Reviewing these studies may indicate that there is no standardised recipe for operationalising processual analysis since this field is still evolving (Yildirim 2014). Nevertheless, there are common methodological themes among them, for example the adoption of qualitative case-study research strategies as well as multi-method collection of both historical and real-time data (Bizzi and Langley 2012). These methodological considerations, that pertain to this research, are further explained in Chapter 3. In this section, however, theoretical attributes of the research are outlined.

The theoretical lens that has informed previous processual research has been mostly contingent on the objectives of each study. For example, Clark and Soulsby (2007) adopted a processual approach when examining how senior management can influence organisational change in firms operating within turbulent institutional environments. Their focus was mainly on theorising organisational change by viewing top management as ‘management regimes’. In doing so, they mainly drew from top management theory. Similarly, Parker (2007) used processual analysis to study strategic decision-making at the boardroom level of two non-profit professional associations. He informed his research using institutional theory, because his main focus on the extent which non-profit boards absorb outside influences. In addition, processual studies such as Duanmu and Fai (2007) and Yildirim (2014) that focused on organisational knowledge and knowledge transfer, mostly engaged with the relevant knowledge management literature.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the organisational field of sports is commonly populated by federated, non-profit associations (Shilbury, Ferkins and Smythe 2013). As a result, most of the studied organisations have been associations composed of other organisations, and not individuals. There are key differences between organisations and individuals, such as the power of collective action, life span and capability to access and pool resources (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). The majority of organisational theories, which sport governance research has mainly engaged with, have an inherent assumption that members of organisations are individuals (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005, Ferkins and Shilbury 2010; Shilbury and Ferkins 2015b). In order to offset some of the shortcomings stemming from the lack of alignment between the theoretical lens and the organisations under study in previous sport management literature (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008), meta-organisation theory is the main theoretical lens of this processual research.

Placing meta-organisation theory at the core of this study may highlight its applicability for studying sport organisations. This is to not claim that classic organisational theories are obsolete when examining organisational dynamics of sport associations. In fact, they may offer transferrable insights that could further enlighten the theorisation processes. Moreover, such approach can encourage other sport management scholars to further experiment with this relatively recent concept of meta-organisations, especially given that in this organisational field suitable objects of research are numerous.

Adding analytical layers to further guide processual research allows for a more contextualised understanding and complementary processual theorising (Clark and Soulsby 2007). Pettigrew (1987, 1997) calls for examining organisational phenomena by searching for continuity and change, patterns, idiosyncrasies, the actions of individuals and groups and processes of structuring. Bidart, Longo and Mendez (2012) also assert that such examination needs to focus on the breakdown of various processes that shape the trajectory path of the organisation because processes in each stage of the organisation's lifecycle lay the foundation for emergence of the next stage. In order to sufficiently incorporate these assertions into the study, the concept of 'organisational lifecycle' is also utilised as an analytical tool. Being able to chart historical contingencies clarifies the roadmap for examining the case-study organisation from birth all the way through to growth maturity, and potentially decline and death (Jack, Dodd and Anderson 2008). The forthcoming sections provides a more detail account of meta-organisation theory as well as the concept of organisational lifecycle in relation to this research.

## 2.3. Meta-organisations through the classical lens

### 2.3.1. Multi-theoretical view on meta-organisations

Thus far, it has been explained that the aim of this research is to processually examine the organisational lifecycle of meta-organisations in sport in order to better understand what processes may shape their trajectory path, and subsequently influence their governance outcomes. It has also been maintained that this processual examination is operationalised through the lens of meta-organisation theory and guided by the concept of organisational lifecycle.

As mentioned earlier in the chapter, much of the previous literature on governance of associations in sport has not utilised meta-organisation theory. Nevertheless, this does not mean that such literature does not offer any relevant insights that could shed further light upon the dynamics of meta-organisations. The critical point to consider is that most of existing literature has utilised classic organisational theories that have been in the wider management domain for several decades. Therefore, in order to draw from that body of literature, it has been considered important to provide succinct reviews of those classic theories, which include agency theory, resource dependency theory, stakeholder theory and institutional theory.

It should be clarified that the prime focus of this study is not on contributing to these classic organisational theories. However, engaging with the literature that has examined meta-organisational settings, though not necessarily through the lens of meta-organisation theory, can provide an opportunity to adopt a multi-theoretical view of meta-organisations. Reviews of current literature show that scholars have accepted the challenge of integrating multiple theoretical perspectives in order to increase the explanatory power of their conceptual framework and to obtain a more thorough understanding about the phenomenon under study (John 2005). Such an approach may entail challenges given that certain theories stem from conflicting grounds, hence extra reconciliation may be required. Nevertheless, a multi-theoretical approach enables the researcher to build a framework that spans across combinations of individuals, dyads, teams, organisations and industries which in turn increases the effectiveness of capturing the dynamics of complex multi-stakeholder organisational environments (John 2005).

Multi-theoretical analysis is recommended for studying governance of organisations with multiple stakeholders, particularly if some of the most influential stakeholders are exogenous to the organisation under study (Christopher 2010). This applies to the case-study organisation (i.e. GAISF) and its influential stakeholders (i.e. IOC). Such approach offsets the shortcomings of one theory by complementing it with another theory (Christopher 2010). Using multiple theories is observed in studies that have examined the governance of sport organisations (e.g. Yeh and Taylor 2008). Outside the context of sport, there are studies that have examined emergence and evolution of organisations. For example, by integrating cognitive and behavioural theory, industrial organisation theory and the evolutionary theory, Lee, Lee, and Rho (2002) studied the emergence of strategic groups. This research has similar objectives to the provided examples. Therefore, to supplement meta-organisation theory, the research utilises a combination of organisation theories in order to enlighten the complex settings of sport meta-organisations further.

Scholarly work in the field of sports management has witnessed utilisation of a diverse range of theories in attempts to explain issues related to governance, organisational behaviour and organisational change. These theories have ranged from economic theories such as transaction cost economics and soft-budget constraints (e.g. Horch and Schutte 2009, Nielsen and Storm 2012) to organisational management theories including, but not limited to, resource dependency theory, institutional theory, agency theory, stewardship, stakeholder theory and resource-based view (Nagel et al. 2015). Yeh and Taylor (2008) examined governance of sports organisations in the light of the commercialisation of sport organisations. This study follows their theoretical focus and utilises resource dependency theory, institutional theory, agency theory and stakeholder theory as its supplementary theoretical instruments. Extensive reviews of these theories have identified multiple integrations of these particular theories as well (Nienhüser 2008). Using these four theories is particularly recommended when the study focuses on relationship between organisations and their external environment (Yeh and Taylor 2008). As a result, agency theory, resource dependency theory, stakeholder theory as well as institutional theory were selected to support the theoretical grounds of the study.

One critical point to consider is that some of these theories may stem from conflicting conceptual assumptions hence there may be a need for reconciling these paradigms. For example, integrating institutional theory and agency theory may entail such a challenge. Agency theory assumes that social actors behave in a rational way (Bendickson et al. 2015), whereas institutional theory assumes that social actors are more driven by legitimacy (Scott 2008). Hence, these two theories may be observed as competing concepts (Lapulme, Sonpar and Litz 2008). Nonetheless, the role of human agency highlighted above reconciles these two paradigms. Although individuals may be influenced by the institutional logics of their environments, human agency still exists as individuals may rationally work to avoid or change institutional rules (Carpenter, Cheng and Feroz 2007, Di Maggio 1988). Next, each of the selected theories is introduced and their applications in relation to this study are highlighted.

### 2.3.2. Resource dependency theory

Resource dependency theory, originally developed by the work of Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), argues that organisations depend on other organisations for provision of critical resources. This implies that there is a reciprocal dependency between organisations (Drees and Heugens 2013). In order to manage such interdependencies, organisations may seek to form inter-organisational arrangements through various means such as joint ventures, mergers, unions, board interlocks and strategic alliances (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). It is understood that such strategies can help organisations in managing their interdependencies, maintaining their autonomy and preserving their legitimacy (Drees and Heugens 2013). To be clear, legitimacy can be understood as a generalised perception, or assumption, that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values and beliefs (Suchman 1995).

Dependant organisations may gain power by forming alliances wherein the smaller firms benefit more through such co-operations compared to larger partners (Hillman, Withers and Collins 2009). Davis and Cobb (2010) also assert that one strategy for firms to adopt in order to manage their interdependence is to grow large or at least join larger networks, create joint ventures or form alliances. These arguments of resource dependency theory signify its usefulness for the study of meta-organisations as it partially explains why certain organisations form associations and encourage other organisations to join.

The intersection of resource dependency theory and sport management literature does offer valuable insights that could be used to better understand sport meta-organisations, particularly why and how they may be formed (Bibak, Thibault and Willem 2018). Nonetheless, there are shortcomings which could make resource dependency theory insufficient to nuance dynamics of meta-organisations comprehensively. Some of these shortcomings that are common across several organisational theories, given that they either implicitly or explicitly assume that members of organisations are individuals (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). This is a critical point to consider since individuals, compared to organisations, have different life spans, motivational stimulants, ability to pool resources and formalise collective action (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).



Furthermore, Casciaro and Piskorski (2005) have argued that studies of resource dependency theory mostly focus on the dependant firm and direct interdependency relationships. Therefore, it has been maintained that the position of the dominant organisation in the reciprocal relationship, and how it can exploit or maintain its power, should be explored further (Casciaro and Piskorski 2005). This is particularly relevant to this study, since in a meta-organisation context, the dependencies of members could translate into indirect dependencies for the meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Also, organisations may experience a shift in their reciprocal position in relation to their stakeholders throughout their lifecycle (Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001). This point further highlights the usefulness of utilising analytical tools such as organisational lifecycle. Moreover, it has to be noted that resource dependency theory has emerged out of studies that were conducted at industry level, not firm level (Hillamn, Withers and Collins 2009). Considering that firm level, or individual organisation level, dynamics are not necessarily the same as industry dynamics, scholars have suggested utilising this theory on examining individual cases as well not just at aggregate level (Davis and Cobbs 2010). Since this study adopts a case-study research strategy, it was considered essential not to overly rely on this particular theory. Casciaro and Piskorski (2005) mentioned that resource dependency theory has been marginalised over the years as its usage has been limited to a theoretical concept. Sport management literature, nevertheless, has empirically engaged with this theory to a reasonable extent.

Horch (1994) used resource dependency theory to assess the extent which government funding has detrimental impact on the autonomy of German sport clubs. He identified the perspective of governmental agencies as well as the counterinfluence of the associations by accessing alternative sources of funding as the two critical factors that shape the reciprocal relationship between the dominant and the dependant organisations. He concluded that the share of the financing provided in the total budget of the dominant organisation is more critical than the share of the provided resource within the recipient organisation's budget. In contrast, Vos et al. (2011) used resource dependency theory, coupled with the institutional theory, and revealed that there is a positive relationship between the proportion of governmental subsidies in the total income of sport clubs and their adoption of subsidy conditions regarding the qualification of the sport technical staff. Vos et al. (2011) argued that the coercive pressure from governmental funders is minimal, instead the focus of funders is to utilise subsidy regulations as an effective instrument to achieve policy goals.

The suggestions of Vos et al. (2011) are also observed in the findings of Tacon, Walters and Cornforth (2017) who showcased how overreliance on funding from a single funder can result in increased agency problems. Such characteristics are reflected in the relationship between IFs and organisations such as the IOC. In order to obtain a better understanding of how agency problems can manifest themselves in meta-organisations, it is important to first introduce agency theory. The next section discusses agency theory further.

### 2.3.3. Agency theory

Agency theory, developed upon the ground-breaking works of Ross (1973) and Mitnick (1992), addresses the omnipresent agency relationship as part of which one party, known as the principle, delegates work to another party, known as the agent. As Eisenhardt (1989a) notes, such agency relationship entails two major peculiarities. Firstly, the agent and the principal may have conflicting interests. Due to the difficulty and costs associated with monitoring, the principal may not be able to verify whether the agent is carrying out the delegated task according to the preferences of the principal. Secondly, the agent and the principal may have different attitudes towards risk, therefore they may pursue different courses of action depending on their risk preferences (Eisenhardt 1989a).

One of the major attributes of agency theory relates to the concept of organisational identification. Mael and Ashforth (1992:103) defined organisational identification as “a perceived oneness with an organisation and the experience of the organisation’s successes and failures as one’s owns”. Agency theory assumes that in the principal-agent relationship, the agent tends to have low levels of organisational identification. The lack of alignment in utility functions of the principal and the agent and low organisational identification can result in ‘agency costs’ (Bendickson et al. 2015). The figure below, adapted from Van Puyvelde et al. (2012), explains that agency costs are the sum of monitoring of costs, bonding costs and residual loss.

*Table 4- Overview of agency costs*

Breakdown of agency costs		
Monitoring costs	Bonding costs	Residual loss
The costs the principal incurs to constrain the activities of the agent.	The costs the agent makes in an attempt to convince the principal of her commitment.	The welfare loss for the principal, as compared with a situation of complete utility alignment, is called the residual loss.

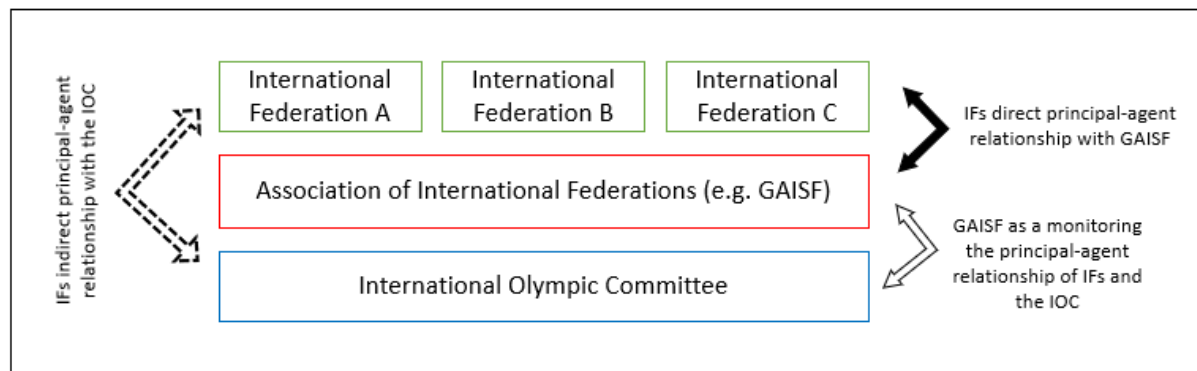
Van Puyvelde et al. (2012) highlight that for a non-profit organisation, it is fundamentally essential to gain a solid understanding of the motivation of the members because the entry, participation and retention of them are critical to the survival of the organisation. Linking this to meta-organisations and agency costs, it can be deduced that organisations may join forces to create associations in order to reduce monitoring costs and residual loss (Hill and Jones 1992). However, once the association is formed, the impact of it within its field is contingent upon a multitude of factors including organisational identification of its members (Kim, Chang and Ko 2010).

The extent to which member organisations identify themselves with the association they are a part of is a relatively unexplored phenomenon in the sport management literature. Nonetheless, agency theory has been empirically utilised in other contexts by sport management scholars. As mentioned previously, Yeh and Taylor (2008) referred to agency theory in order to address issues about size, structure and roles of boards in sport organisations. Also, Mason, Thibault and Misener (2006) highlighted the agency problems in the IOC that are linked to the organisation's structure. Considering the previous governance scandals in the IOC, they argued that given the same individuals are in charge of management as well as decision making, a broader group of stakeholders should to be incorporated into both decision-making procedures and management functions. This can highlight the importance of appropriate conceptualisation of agents and principals in non-profit organisations.

As opposed to firms where there is a distinctive line between shareholders and management, it may be challenging to straightforwardly distinguish between principal and agents in meta-organisations (Balser and McClusky 2005, Jegers 2008). Although the existence of residual claimants, from an economic perspective, and potential division between ownership and management can cause agency problems, voluntary and non-profit associations are usually characterised with absence of residual claimants (Enjolras 2008). Meta-organisations often operate on a non-profit basis (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). This point also applies to the case-study organisation of this research. Previous studies, such as that of Geeraert and Drieskens (2015), which have applied agency theory to meta-organisations in sport (e.g. FIFA, UEFA) have argued that the meta-organisation, and precisely its executive board, are agents of the members (e.g. national federations) who are the principals. This argument is proposed based on the notion that the principals have delegated a range of tasks including setting the rules of the sport, and organising tournaments.

The view of Geeraert and Drieskens (2015) can be extended to the relationship between IFs and stakeholders such as the IOC given that international federations delegate a number of tasks to the IOC including organising the Games, marketing of the events and distribution of financial resources earned via the Games amongst participating federations. Therefore, it is maintained that in meta-organisations, including the case-study organisation of this research, members are principals and the meta-organisation's executive board is the agent. Van Puyvelde et al. (2012) also support the view of “members as principal” in non-profit organisations. Such distinguishing between principals and agents could help in nuancing the significance of organisational identification in meta-organisations. The figure below illustrates this point in relation to the context of this research.

*Figure 2- Overview of agency-principal relationships*



As explained above, some of the issues in regard to applying agency theory to meta-organisations, such as distinguishing between principals and agents, could be conceptually reconciled. However, there are other challenges that may make it difficult to capture the impact of all influential processes across a meta-organisation's lifecycle if one solely relies upon agency theory. Much of the existing literature on agency problems of non-profit organisations has focused on internal agency issues (Van Puyvelde et al. 2012). Non-profit associations may be accountable to external stakeholders such as donors and funders, who in turn could established resource dependencies (Tacon, Walters and Cornforth 2017). One reason for the focus of agency theory research on internal agency issues has been the fundamentals of the theory itself. Agency theory is a relatively simplified model that considers only two parties in an organisational relationship, the principal and the agent (Yeh and Taylor 2008). However, meta-organisations, such as non-profit associations of organisations, have multiple principals with different interests and objectives (Steinberg 2010). This may be the reason why agency theory on its own may not be able to address all the governance peculiarities of non-profit

associations. Scholars have recommended considering stakeholder theory when using agency theory (Steinberg 2010). The findings of Mason, Thibault and Misener (2006) are also reflective of the importance of a more robust understanding of stakeholders. The next section discusses stakeholder theory.

#### 2.3.4. Stakeholder theory

Strategic stakeholder management has been recognised as an important dimension for organisations (Fassin 2012). Consequently, organisational studies on sport entities have utilised stakeholder theory (O’Boyle and Shilbury 2016). Stakeholder theory, originally developed by the work of Freeman (1984), essentially argues that organisations should consider the impact of their actions on individuals and organisations within their immediate and wider environment, rather than only focusing on the interest of the owners and prioritising the needs of shareholders. Since its emergence, this theory has been further developed, both by Freeman himself (e.g. Freeman 1999, 2004) and also by other scholars (e.g. Freeman, Harrison and Wicks 2007, Friedman and Miles 2006, Philips 2003b, Weiss 2014).

Although such growth in the body of literature on this theory has enhanced the understanding of scholars about strategic dimensions of organisations across multiple disciplines, it has simultaneously resulted in a certain degree of uncertainty and vagueness, particularly due to the multiple ambiguous definitions of the term ‘stakeholder’ (Kaler 2002, Miles 2017). As a result, it has been argued that stakeholder theory should be realised more as a consolidation of a set of narratives anchored around common fundamentals, as opposed to a single standalone theory (Gilbert and Rasche 2008). Furthermore, stakeholder theory has been known to scholars for over three decades and currently has nearly 600 different instantiations in the literature (Fassin 2012, Miles 2017). Since a universally agreed upon definition is unlikely to emerge, it has been stressed that rather than focusing on misleading and inconclusive debates merely over the definitions of stakeholders, it is more beneficial to focus on the specific hyponyms of the theory that are relevant for the context of the inquiry (Miles 2017). Subsequently, the aim of this section is neither to participate in definitional debates nor to offer a comprehensive review of the theory. Rather, this section aims to highlight the key arguments of stakeholder theory, particularly in relation to the context of this study, and elaborate on its interplay with the concept of meta-organisations.

Freeman (1984) originally described stakeholders as individuals or organisations that can affect or be affected by the objectives of the organisation. However, since then, multiple other definitions have been proposed to describe stakeholders (Fassin 2012). For example, in a recently conducted systematic review, Miles (2017) identified a total of 15 groups of stakeholder definitions. The divergence in stakeholder definitions stem from differences in theoretical views on stakeholders. The 'claimant' view asserts that a stakeholder is any individual or group that claims a stake, right or interest in an organisation whereas the 'influencer' view regards stakeholders as individuals or groups that can influence or be influenced by the organisation (Kaler 2002). Miles (2017) identified another two chief views. The 'collaborator' perspective identifies stakeholders through their ability to co-operate with the organisation regardless of their ability to influence or their claim of a stake in the organisation, whilst the 'recipient' view recognises stakeholders based upon on the extent to which the actions of the organisation can affect, or put at risk, the interests of the stakeholders.

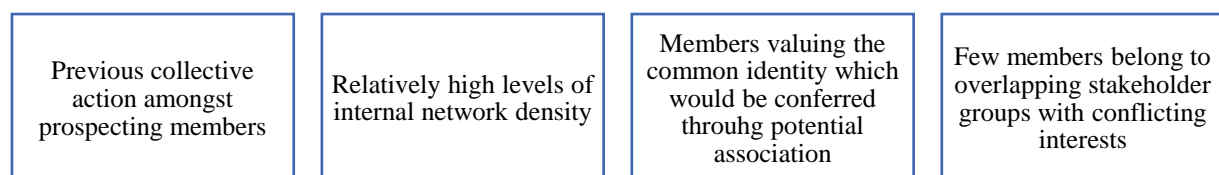
Although some have maintained that in certain fields of inquiry, such as business ethics, focusing on the traditional claimant view may be sufficient (Kaler 2002), others have argued that for such an essentially contested concept, it is necessary to consider combinatory definitions given that those theoretical views (i.e. claimant, influencer, collaborator, recipient) are not mutually exclusive (Heugens and van Oosterhout 2002). As a result, this study adopts the combinatory definition of Post, Preston and Sauter-Sachs (2002:8) who described stakeholders as "individuals and constituencies that contribute, either voluntarily or involuntarily, to wealth-creating capacity and activities, and who are therefore the potential beneficiaries and, or, risk bearers of the organisation". This definition appropriately relates to the context of meta-organisations as it reflects upon the nature of the relationship between the meta-organisation and its members as well as external stakeholders.

As Fassin (2012) notes, the majority of studies using stakeholder theory have focused on topics such as corporate social responsibility and corporate governance. Investigations of these topics using stakeholder theory are several in the sport management literature as both corporate governance (e.g. Senaux 2008, Yeh and Taylor 2008) as well as corporate social responsibility (e.g. Smith and Westerbeek 2007, Walters 2009) of sport organisations have been subject to examination. However, empirical stakeholder theory research on stakeholder groups that are interconnected in a network is limited (Lapulme, Sonpar and Litz 2008).

Nevertheless, the literature on stakeholder theory does offer intricacies that can be linked to meta-organisations. Common goals, threats and legal concerns as well as shared economic interests, visions and organisational objectives motivate stakeholders to mobilise against dominant organisations (Butterfield, Reed, and Lemak 2004). Such mobilisation may be explicitly manifested via working groups, unions and associations (Lapulme, Sonpar and Litz 2008). In order to do so, stakeholders should be aware of the possibility of mobilising, be willing to mobilise and finally be capable to mobilise (Rowley and Berman 2000). In addition, mobilising stakeholders should maintain the perception that the target organisation will be responsive to the influences resulting from their mobilisation (Butterfield, Reed and Lemak 2004). These points are nuanced in the context of this study since one of the major parts of the research essentially focuses on the mobilisation process of certain stakeholders (e.g. international sport federations) of a larger network (e.g. Olympic Movement) whilst considering the fundamental factors impacting the mobilisation process.

It has been noted that stakeholder groups tend to have heterogeneous interests, thus it is often challenging to set actionable priorities and effectively mobilise in order to take action towards common goals (Winn 2001, Wolfe and Pulter 2002). This heterogeneity is critical to consider given that significant diversity in the attitudes and interests both between and within stakeholder groups shapes the trajectory of the mobilisation process (Cordano, Frieze and Ellis 2004). The figure below, adapted from Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003), summarises the key stimulants of stakeholder mobilisation. It has been asserted that in an organisational environment where there are a number of strong organisations in terms of resources, the stakeholders of these organisations and particularly those who are more dependent on the resources of these organisations tend to adopt indirect strategies, such as formation of alliances or unions, in order to manage their interdependencies (Lapulme, Sonpar and Litz 2008). The process of mobilising, however, may be influenced by a variety of factors, including institutional pressures (Lee 2011). Subsequently, the next section discusses institutional theory.

*Figure 3 – Main stimulants to drive stakeholder mobilisation, adapted from Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003)*



### 2.3.5. Institutional theory

Scott (1987) notes one of the earliest and most influential contributions regarding institutional theory was offered by Selznick (1957). Although there are multiple versions of institutional theory in the literature, the key focus of most of them is on the process of institutionalisation which is viewed as a social process through which social actors conform towards commonly agreed social realities and values, independent of their own views and actions in so far as the underlying logic of those realities are taken for granted (Scott 1987). In other words, routines, values and structures may evolve over time and become legitimate. Nonetheless, even in institutionalised fields deviance and agency is possible amongst members (DiMaggio and Powell 1992, Hirsch 1997). DiMaggio and Powell (1983) developed this theory further by proposing the concept of institutional isomorphism, which explains the constrained processes that force social actors to resemble other social actors facing the same environment in order to sustain their legitimacy. One notable consequence of isomorphism is the increased similarities between social actors (Scott 1987). Adapted from DiMaggio and Powell (1983), the figure below explains different types of institutional pressures. Through isomorphic pressures organisations in the same environment would gradually become more similar and adopt similar strategies (Yeh and Taylor 2008).

*Figure 4 – Key forms of isomorphism, adapted from DiMaggio and Powell*





It is important to consider how institutional pressures manifest themselves in sport's organisational environment. Generally, associations are one of the oldest forms of organising (McGlew 1999). Since ancient times various forms of clubs, associations and unions have been created by individuals or organisations that share common interests, profession, social status, identity, goals or beliefs (Ascough 2002). Associations, particularly as formalised social creations with an aim to serve a specific purpose, experienced an increase presence during the 18th and 19th century (Brown 1973). It has been maintained that sports began to be formally organised towards the end of the 19th century (Gratton et al. 2012). Also, it is acknowledged that sport is a social phenomenon that encompasses social relationships and sociological outcomes (Bailey 2005). Considering that individuals are capable of building social capital through forming associations based on common social interests (Stolle and Rochon 1998, Theeboom, Schailée and Nols 2012), as well as the aforementioned historical implications of associations, it can be observed that associations as a form of organising have been institutionalised into the sport governance system.

Institutional theory has been frequently utilised by scholars, either independently or integrated into a multi-theoretical framework, in studies of governance and organisational behaviour of sport organisations (Nagel et al. 2015). Most studies, however, have focused on organisations operating at national level which have different organisational dynamics compared to international meta-organisations (Amis, Slack and Hinnings 2002, Slack and Hinnings 1994, Kikulis, Slack and Hinnings 1992, Kikulis, Slack and Hinnings 1995a, Kikulis, Slack and Hinnings 1995b). Nevertheless, beneficial contributions of these studies need to be mentioned. Kikulis, Slack and Hinnings (1995a) highlight the role of human agency in resistance to organisational change due to institutional pressures. Organisations that have contrasting values with the institutional pressures may simply demonstrate signs of superficial conformity but eventually return to the form that is more consistent with their values (Amis, Slack and Hinnings 2002). The essential point is that human agents are involved in the creation of social structures and these structures do not randomly appear simply as a consequence of human activities (Kikulis 2000).

The role of human agency highlighted above not only reconciles the previously mentioned conflicting logics of institutional and agency theory, it also signifies the role of individuals in organisations. Meta-organisation theory focuses on organisations composed of other organisations, such as international sport federations. The focus of this research is also on a meta-organisation, precisely the association of international sport federations. Nonetheless, the effects of human agency inserted by other organisations into the meta-organisation cannot be ignored (Kilulis 2000). Hence although organisations, not individuals, are the units of analysis, the effects of human agency at critical stages of the meta-organisation's lifecycle are also considered.

As shown by Malcourant, Vas and Zintz (2015), World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) can be conceptualised as a meta-organisation. Wagner (2011) used institutional theory to examine the process behind the emergence of WADA and how their creation was perceived by their stakeholders. It was discovered that although some stakeholders (e.g. international governing body of Athletics) was actively committed to the process of creating WADA in order to tackle doping problems, other stakeholders (e.g. FIFA) were more reluctant in this regard as they perceived doping as an external problem (Wagner 2011). Therefore, it is acknowledged that it is important to consider the reaction of key stakeholders to the emergence of the meta-organisation as that enlightens the understanding on the future trajectory path of the meta-organisation as well as its potential working relationship with its key stakeholders. The table below summarises the key learnings from the discussed organisational theories.

*Table 5- Key insights offered by classic organisational theories relevant for meta-organisations*

<b>Classic Theory</b>	<b>Applications for studying meta-organisations (in sport)</b>	<b>Shortcoming for studying meta-organisations</b>
Resource Dependency Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Organisations may seek to organise collective action in order to manage their interdependencies.</li> <li>Over-relying on one resource provider can create agency problems</li> </ul>	Literature on the theory is too focused on the dependent organisation compared to the dominant organisation. Inadequate theorising related to indirect dependencies
Agency Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Principals may seek a formalised collective in order to manage agency costs</li> </ul>	Challenges in conceptualising principals and agents. Over-simplified model does not fully capture multi-stakeholder environments
Stakeholder Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Common goals, threats and legal concerns as well as shared economic interests, visions and organisational objectives motivates stakeholders to mobilise against dominant organisations.</li> </ul>	Empirical stakeholder theory research on stakeholder groups that are interconnected in a network is limited
Institutional Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Certain forms of collective action may be the institutionalised forms of formalising collective action in a particular organisational field</li> </ul>	Lack of empirical institutional research that has examined externally inserted agency on interdependency relationships

## 2.4. Meta-organisation Theory

Organisations are one of the fundamental facets of modern society therefore to obtain a better understanding about the society, it is essential to study its organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Meta-organisations account for a significant number of organisations and as a result, scholars have been encouraged to study them (Berkowitz and Bor 2018, Berkowitz and Dumez 2016, Spillman 2017). Studying meta-organisations, or more generally organisation of institutions or networks, can yield fruitful clues to better understand behaviour of such entities and subsequently formulate solutions for the problems they face (Ahrne and Brunsson 2011). Nonetheless, it has been stated that meta-organisations are perceived to be dull and unexciting research objects therefore organisational scholars have been reluctant to pay notable attention to them (Dumez 2005). More recently, however, meta-organisations have appeared to attract more attention from scholars given their highly rich and complex intricacies as well as the role they play in the environment of other organisations (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). This section begins with an introduction to the meta-organisation theory and how it has been utilised in the literature. Its key assumptions are explained and the need for such theory is discussed. Next, a review of the literature on this concept is provided and the organisational characteristics of meta-organisations are further explained. This is then linked to the context of sports by identifying where meta-organisations are situated in this specific organisational field.

### 2.4.1. Overview of meta-organisation theory

Organising social actors in a way which facilitates collective action is nothing particularly new (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). There is an existing body of literature that has researched trade associations, federations, corporative-associative orders, inter-organisational collaborations, industry alliances and business interest groups (Bennett 2000, Berkowitz and Dumez 2016, Capaldo and Petruzzelli 2014, Streeck and Schmitter 1985, Van Waarden 1992). The term ‘meta-organisation’, however, was initially coined in by the pioneering work of Ahrne and Brunsson (2005), who later provided an extended account of this concept in their book titled *meta-organizations* (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). They added further depth to the meta-organisation theory in their subsequent publications (e.g. Ahrne and Brunsson 2011, 2012), as did other scholars such as Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012) who independently presented a theory of meta-organisations of their own.

“Meta-organisation” is the umbrella term used by Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) which refers to organisations that are composed of other organisations, such as trade associations, chambers of commerce and federated associations. Meta-organisations aim to enable their members to pool resources, access information, act within a wider setting, build dynamic capacities and defend their interests (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). Furthermore, meta-organisations can act as intermediaries that mediate the relationship between organisations within a particular organisational field, as well as the relationship between the collective group of those organisations with other stakeholders (Frandsen and Johansen 2018). This is achieved by representing them or intervening in their relationship through furthering, or impeding, their interests and activities (Frandsen and Johansen 2018).

Since the birth of meta-organisation theory, the concept has been subject to a number of conceptual and empirical scholarly works. Several scholars have offered conceptual contributions to the meta-organisation theory (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016, Ahrne, Brusson and Kerwer 2016, Barnett 2018, Berkowitz 2018, Berkowitz and Bor 2018, Berkowitz and Dumez 2016, Brechin and Ness 2013, Bres, Raufflet and Boghossian 2018, Heine and Kerk 2017, Kerwer 2013, Koch 2009, Lawton, Rajwani and Minto 2017, McIntyre 2009, Spillman, 2017). Also, the theory has been empirically applied to different industries such as oil and gas, maritime and healthcare, investigating a broad range of organisational issues (Berkowitz, Bucheli and Dumez 2017, Chaudhury et al. 2016, Cropper and Bor 2018, Frandsen and Johansen 2018, König, Schulte and Enders 2012, Radnejad, Vredenburg and Woiceshyn 2017, Vale, Branco and Ribeiro 2016, Vifell and Thedvall 2012, Webb 2018). In addition, one study has applied this theory to the field of sport management (Malcourant, Vas and Zintz 2015). This research not only sheds further light upon the applicability of this theory to the context of sport management, it also provides insights transferrable to meta-organisations in other organisational fields

Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) highlighted the issue that most classic organisational theories, either explicitly or implicitly, assume that members of organisations are individuals. This assumption can cause theoretical misalignments when studying organisations that are formed of other organisations. This is because compared to individuals, organisations have different capabilities in relation to several key factors including life span, power of collective action, motivational stimulants and ability to access and pool resources (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Subsequently, conditions for growth, conflict, survival and failure are different (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Furthermore, entry and exit of members have different impacts compared to individual employees joining or leaving an organisation (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016).

Recognising organisations such as international associations as “meta-organisations” enables one to gain fresh insights regarding how these organisations function and make a difference in their organisational field (Krewer 2013). Koch (2009) maintains that although organisational theories have had a significant impact on the research about multinational firms, they have not generated the same impact on the research about international associations. The dialogue initiated by Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) attempts to encourage scholars to adopt an alternative approach in theoretical examination of meta-organisations. In other words, they encourage researchers to go beyond classic organisational theories and adopt a bespoke theoretical lens that is fine-tuned for examining meta-organisations. Nonetheless, as Lawton, Rajwani and Minto (2017) note, integration of multiple theoretical lenses is encouraged in meta-organisation research. This is reflected in the theoretical approach of the study as it also draws from a number of organisational theories which were discussed in the previous sections.

Some believe that meta-organisations are meaningless entities that are simply occupying an organisational space (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). This view argues that meta-organisations are administrative labels that merely formalises interactions between organisations that can communicate and interact with each other in more or less in the same way regardless of the existence of the meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). However, as Berkowitz and Dumez (2016) note, meta-organisation is not simply a new phrase to refer to a certain form of organisations, rather it refers to a practical concept with distinct arguments. Meta-organisations yield synergies and can be more than simply the sum of their members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). This is also shown by the work of Vale, Branco and Ribeiro (2016) who showed that as far as certain organisational attributes such as intellectual capital is concerned, the intellectual capital of the meta-organisation is not the same as the sum of the intellectual capital of the members composing it.

Meta-organisations aim to serve the interests of their constituents by organising the environment of their members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Organisations find it more challenging to influence and predict their external environment compared to their internally organised environment (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Therefore, meta-organisations are created to effectively synthesise and subsequently organise this otherwise unorganised environment on behalf of the concerned stakeholders (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Such form of organising not only allows the members to insert agency into the environments of their stakeholders, it also enables them to manage their interdependencies (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

#### 2.4.2. Understanding meta-organisations

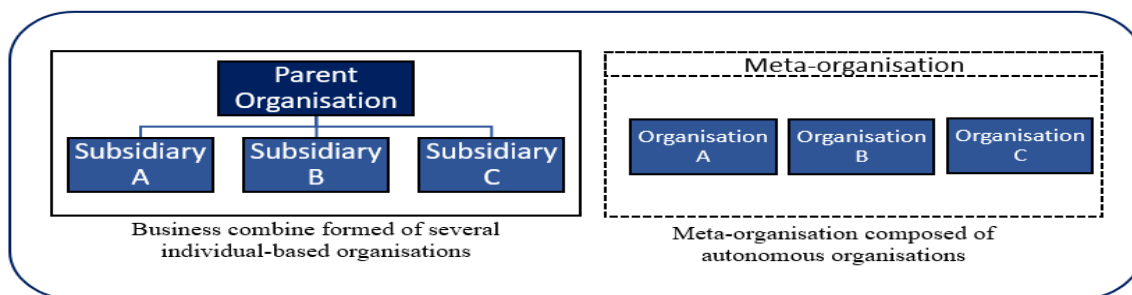
Institutional pluralism exists when objectives of an organisational setting are multiple and central decision-making powers are defused (Bres, Raufflet and Boghossian 2018). Plural organisations appear in their respective fields through various formats, depending on their mission and objectives, power dynamics, membership and environmental logics (Bres, Raufflet and Boghossian 2018). Therefore, it is essential to elaborate on particulars of meta-organisations as they are only one form of plural organisations (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). Scholars are encouraged by Bres, Raufflet and Boghossian (2018) to investigate other plural settings (e.g. referent organisations, temporary organisations, hybrid organisation). This study focuses on meta-organisations. Given that the term meta-organisation may be interpreted broadly, it is important to elaborate on the differences between general forms of meta-organisations. This exercise is facilitated by focusing on attributes such as interconnection, membership, capacity and process of emergence (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005).

##### 2.4.2.1. Linkage between members

As far as interconnection of organisations is concerned, it is important to note how organisations are aggregated in a meta-organisation. One may consider business combines as meta-organisations. Business combines may be parent companies that hold several subsidiaries. For example, Virgin Group is a multinational conglomerate that operates as a holding company for a wide range of subsidiaries in different industries such as telecommunications (e.g. Virgin Mobile), hospitality (e.g. Virgin Hotels) and healthcare (e.g. Virgin Care).

Although Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) do acknowledge that business combines may be considered organisations that are composed of other organisations, they emphasise that such subsidiaries are essentially decentralised departments of an individual-based organisation where ‘membership’ is controlled. Therefore, it is important to note that the term “meta-organisation” is predominantly used to refer to association of independent and autonomous organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Furthermore, associations themselves may have individual-based organisations such as firms as members (e.g. trade associations), or they may have other associations as members. The latter is the common case amongst national and international sport governing bodies. These organisations may be referred to as “meta meta-organisations” (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Union of states (e.g. United Nations, European Union, OPEC) are another form of organisations that may be examined through the theoretical lens of meta-organisations (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). Given the relatively higher levels of authority of the organisation over members, particularly in relation to entry and exit, there may be notable differences between associations of states and associations of organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Nevertheless, there are transferable dynamics which are referred to in subsequent sections.

*Figure 5- Comparison of meta-organisations (e.g. associations) with business combines*



#### 2.4.2.2. Openness of boundaries

Membership is another critical dimension of meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). As mentioned earlier, the alternative to the view of Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) on meta-organisations is pioneered by the work of Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012). One of the main differences between their theory of meta-organisations and that of Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) is that Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012) include informal networks in their definition of meta-organisations. Based on openness of membership, as well as level of stratification, Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012) offer a typology of meta-organisations, which is summarised in the table below (Gulati, Puranam and Tushman 2012: 34).

Meta-organisation, in the view of Ahrne and Brunsson (2005), mostly relates to meta-organisations with relatively closed membership. However, Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012) consider open communities and managed ecosystems as meta-organisations as well. Although the findings of this study may have transferrable insights in relation to meta-organisations with open membership, it is stated that the theoretical focus of the research has been on meta-organisations with closed membership and lower level of stratification.

*Table 6 – Meta-organisation typology, adapted from Gulati, Puranam and Tushman (2012)*

	Low-stratification/ heterarchical decision making	High-stratification/ hierarchical decision making
Closed membership	Closed communities (e.g. trade associations, technical- standards committees)	Extended enterprises (e.g. OEM - Original Equipment Manufacturer -supplier networks, franchising networks)
Open membership	Open communities (e.g. Wikipedia, Open Source)	Managed ecosystem (e.g. Android Operating System)

#### 2.4.2.3. Capacity of meta-organisations

In addition, Spillman (2017) offers a typology of meta-organisations based on their capacity, which is crucial to the contextual conditions and organisational trajectory path of meta-organisations. Some meta-organisations may operate as “dinner associations”, where the collective body aims to sustainably formalise the interactions of organisations within a loose and informal network. “Service associations” intend to offer the prospective members a platform, without which there may be high transaction costs, to share knowledge whilst enhancing their recognition by the stakeholders of the wider environment. “policy associations” aim to provide a route to organisations to influence policy domains which otherwise may be too consequential or inaccessible. It is acknowledged that meta-organisations may emerge with a certain capacity and over time transpose into other forms (Spillman 2017). In fact, Berkowitz and Bor (2018) note that due to the low costs associated with maintaining a meta-organisation, some of them may continue to exist even after their original objectives are either achieved or have gradually vanished. In such a scenario, the meta-organisation becomes a ghost entity that is merely occupying organisational space as a “dormant” meta-organisation.

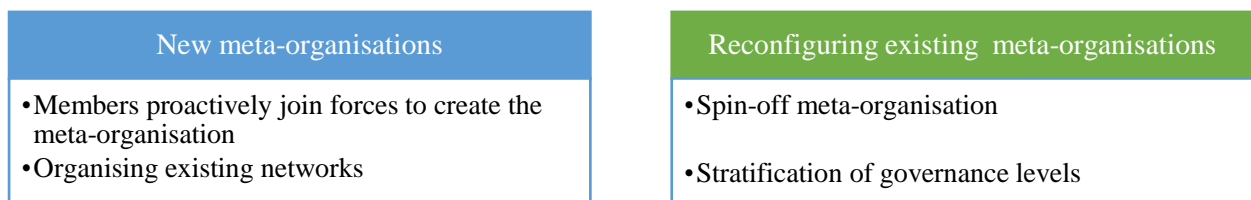


#### 2.4.2.4. Emergence of meta-organisations

Reviewing the literature shows that there are two general scenarios, as illustrated in the figure below, through which meta-organisations are created (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005, 2008). Organisations of different industries, though with common interests, may decide to collaborate more closely by establishing a meta-organisation. For example, businesses operating in different sectors may establish a meta-organisation in the form of a chamber of commerce. Organisations within the same organisational field may establish a meta-organisation, although they may already be interacting with each other as part of a loose network (Spillman 2017). Such a process typically involves emergence of a new meta-organisation.

Furthermore, it is possible to observe the emergence of a meta-organisation as a result of reconfiguration of existing structures (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Due to a variety of causes such as over-expansion, disputes or other strategic reasons, members within an existing meta-organisation may spin-off and form a separate meta-organisation. Similarly, in order to manage boundaries, meta-organisations may experience internal stratifications which subsequently results in creation of more but smaller, or fewer but larger, meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

*Figure 6 – Two main themes of meta-organisation emergence into the field*



#### 2.4.3. Characteristics of meta-organisations

Membership, rules, monitoring, sanctions and hierarchy are the five fundamental attributes that make a complete organisation (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). Meta-organisations, however, are described as ‘partial organisations’ given that they often lack some of the aforementioned criteria, such as monitoring capabilities and a standardised hierarchy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2011). Compared to complete organisations, however, it is recognised that the organisational characteristics of meta-organisations offer both opportunities and threats as they have both strengths and weaknesses (McIntyre 2009). These strengths and weaknesses are further reflected in the characteristics of meta-organisations.

As shown by Malcourant, Vas and Zintz (2015) characteristics of meta-organisations may be outlined based on two dimensions, one is their strategic dimensions and the other is their structural dimensions. Strategic dimensions relate to the mission and scope of the meta-organisation which subsequently shape the conditions regarding purpose and membership (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). Structural dimensions, that Malcourant, Vas and Zintz (2015) refer to as ‘organisational’ dimensions, relate to hierarchies and functionalities. This dimension of meta-organisations corresponds with decision-making processes, shaping the conditions for organisational change and conflict resolution (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016).

#### 2.4.3.1. Strategic dimensions

The primary step to fully understand a meta-organisation is to identify the purpose behind its creation (Malcourant, Vas and Zintz 2015). The table below summarises functions of meta-organisations across three main domains. As illustrated below, the objectives of meta-organisations may vary. Sharing information and educating members, setting standards and influencing policies via representation and lobbying as well as enhancing the recognition and visibility of members may form the objectives of a meta-organisation (Spillman 2017). Meta-organisations may pursue a combination of these objectives hence it is important to note that not all meta-organisations have the same objectives, nor will their objectives remain the same over time (Spillman 2017). Furthermore, meta-organisations with similar purposes may be created at the same time, however over time there may be a divergence in their trajectory path depending on the institutional circumstances that are present in their environment (Chaudhury et al. 2016).

*Table 7- Main avenues of influence for meta-organisations, adapted from Ahrne and Brunsson (2005, 2008)*

Collaboration	Identity	Regulations
Alliances for collective action for common goals or against common threats	Aspiring and reinforcing the identity of members	Acting as a regulator
Forums of dialogue, exchange of knowledge and discussing solutions to common problems	Attributing social status and increased legitimacy	Setting standards and policies

Members are the most critical assets of the meta-organisation as without members, the meta-organisations will not exist (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). The membership strategy of meta-origination is linked to the purpose and the set objectives (Malcourant, Vas and Zintz 2015). This strategy entails determining the characteristics of potential members as well as the process of member acquisition. As explained earlier, meta-organisations may select open or closed boundaries regarding their membership (Gulati, Puranam and Tushman 2012). This factor further informs whether prospecting members are self-created by the meta-organisation, self-selected or approved by existing members (Malcourant, Vas and Zintz 2015).

Furthermore, meta-organisations usually outline specific conditions for membership in order to attract a particular group of organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). The membership criteria often require the prospecting members to possess characteristics such as belonging to a particular industry or controlling a certain level of resources (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). If the meta-organisation's purpose is related to empowering collaboration, pooling resources and collective action, organisations that are most resourceful are sought the most by the meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). Similarly, if the meta-organisation's purpose is to reinforce the status of its members and enhance their legitimacy, organisations with highest status will be the most valuable members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012).

As Berkowitz and Bor (2018) explain, meta-organisations are relatively easy to set up and maintain considering that they can function without significant amounts of resources such as physical infrastructure and full-time personnel. Meta-organisations often need a small number of members to be created and sustained as an organisation hence they are relatively easy to establish (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). The impartial nature of meta-organisations may imply that meta-organisations are centrally weak, however it also indicates that meta-organisations are flexible entities that are less costly to implement and maintain compared to complete organisations (Berkowitz 2018). Such attributes, as well as typically low cost of membership, subsequently allow for proliferation of meta-organisations within organisational fields (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). This ease in establishment is simultaneously a challenge for meta-organisations considering that one of the fundamental motives of meta-organisations is to be the unique body that acts as a monopoly association for its members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Emergence of multiple meta-organisations that are too similar in the same field lowers the importance of each meta-organisation, resulting in a decline in the meta-organisation's ability to attract resourceful members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

The need to recruit organisations that meet specific criteria as members limits the growth of meta-organisation's membership size given that there are a limited number of organisations that would meet the set criteria (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Moreover, this implies that members are difficult to replace, reflecting on the note that meta-organisations depend on their members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Such dependence is further explained by an inverse correlation between the need of an organisation to join a meta-organisation and the level of critical resource (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Organisations that have the highest status or possess the highest level of resources are the ones that usually need the meta-organisation membership the least. For example, in trade associations although the meta-organisation is expected to serve the common interests of its members, in practice it focuses more on the interests of its largest members (Lawton, Rajwani and Minto 2017). Similarly, the more organisations are dependent on the resources provided to them by the meta-organisation, the stronger the meta-organisation will be (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012).

One of the critical aspects of the relationship between meta-organisation and its members is that members seek to preserve their autonomy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). They do not want membership at the meta-organisation to negatively impact their position as an independent and autonomous organisation (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). Organisations with a relatively higher level of resources or legitimacy may believe that they could exercise more power and influence if they stay out of the meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). When they do join, it is likely that such members control more resources than the meta-organisation itself (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). Nevertheless, their subscription to the meta-organisation increases the legitimacy of the meta-organisation and consequently may encourage other organisations to join as well (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). Membership strategy ultimately dictates the level of similarity between members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). To be influential actors, meta-organisations need to ensure a high degree of co-ordination and a strong common sense of identity between their members (Cropper and Bor 2018). Nevertheless, different members will introduce different interests and values into the meta-organisation (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). In addition, members may join a meta-organisation with similar interests and values, however as individual organisations they may develop on different trajectory paths (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). Ahrne and Brunsson (2005) argued that there is a positive correlation between the strength of the meta-organisation and the homogeneity of its members. In other words, the more similar the members are to each other the stronger the meta-organisation will be. Conversely, increased heterogeneity in membership weakens the meta-organisation.

#### 2.4.3.2. Organisational dimensions

The previous section provided a review of the literature about the strategic dimensions of meta-organisations. This section elaborates on the organisational dimensions of meta-organisation and the challenges they face in this regard. As mentioned earlier, this dimension relates to the issues associated with their hierarchy and their functionality in terms of decision-making and conflict resolution. These elements are connected to the challenges discussed previously. It is the purpose of the meta-organisation and its membership that shape the conditions of its functionality (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005).

Purpose	Mission and objectives of the meta-organisation inform its member recruitment strategy, which subsequently sets its boundaries and scope for growth.
Membership	Degree of similarity in resourcefulness and status of members influences the potential trajectory path of the meta-organisation.
Decision-Making	Depending on the nuances that stems from the membership, the meta-organisation's capabilities in terms of taking effective action are influenced.
Organisational Change	As the internal and external environment change, meta-organisation may face challenges in enlarging or reforming. Conflict between members and/or between members and the meta-organisations may arise

*Figure 7 – Summary organisational dimensions of meta-organisations*

As mentioned before, financial resources are not usually the main challenge for meta-organisations to be set up. Conveying the purpose of the meta-organisation and establishing its legitimacy is a more considerable challenge (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). That is why most meta-organisations may struggle to affect the environment in the short term however they begin to exercise more influence in the long run (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005, McIntyre 2009). As Webb (2018) points out, there is a process of organisational bricolage in meta-organisation in the sense that member organisations become more aware of their role, and the role of other members, within the meta-organisation as they continue to pursue their collective action. In other words, it is possible that the roles and responsibilities of each member absorb further clarity as members interact, values are performed and subsequently institutionalised in the environment of the meta-organisation (Webb 2018).

The process of organisational bricolage in meta-organisations may entail several challenges such as member participation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Barnett (2018) asserts that in order to be an influential actor, meta-organisations need to ensure an adequate level of member involvement and work beyond simply creating an association and recruiting a few members. Economic self-interest, sociological identity and management of the meta-organisation are amongst the influential factors that drive member involvement in meta-organisations (Barnett 2018). When an increase in a sector's collective payoff is more beneficial to each organisation than individual gains, organisations are more likely to collaborate through a unified platform to protect and promote their economic interests (Barnett 2018). Similarly, organisations in the same sector may aim to reinforce their collective identity, despite potential rivalrous relationships, and express their solidarity through an organised effort (Barnett 2018). However, the critical element that has been relatively understudied, and often unclear to members, and is the management strategies of the meta-organisation (Hoffman and Ocasio 2001).

Decision making is another challenge for meta-organisations (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). It is argued that meta-organisations typically rely on consensus, as opposed to hierarchy, in order to facilitate decision-making (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016, Heine and Kerk 2017). Depending on the heterogeneity of the members as well as the impact of meta-organisation's decisions on the autonomy of each member, decision-making processes may become protracted or inconclusive which subsequently jeopardises the essence of meta-organisation (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). Even though meta-organisations may resort to proposing standards as opposed to enforcing regulation in order to leave the autonomy of members intact, such practice may cause the meta-organisation to lack relevance and diminish its influence (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). As far as heterogeneity of members is concerned, increased diversity in the interest of members subsequently increases the likelihood of disagreement and potentially conflict (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). As Heine and Kerk (2017) also note, issues relating to the coordination of efforts or the distribution of benefits have high risk of being affected by deadlocks in decision-making processes when heterogeneous members have overly diverse interests. These challenges can affect a broad range of meta-organisations regardless of their size. For example, Krewer (2013) maintained that even in complex, large and sophisticated organisations such as EU, the central point of authority is weak and although each member of EU is an autonomous governance unit, due to the organisational structure of EU there are limitations for co-ordinated and autonomous action within the organisation.

The lack of consensus or dispute may exist between members or the members and the meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). The interdependency between the members, as well as the members and the meta-organisations, regarding elements such as power and resources can complicate the process of resolving conflicts (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). Inter-organisational disputes may be resolved through persuasion (i.e. one party altering its interest), bargaining (i.e. reaching an agreement without changing interests and preferences) or voting (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Given the complexities of motives that can lead to a shift in preferences, meta-organisations find it problematic to resolve conflict through persuasion (March and Simon 1958). Furthermore, continuously accepting unfavourable decisions is not ideal to the autonomy of the member organisations hence conflict resolution through bargaining may also be challenging (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). As far as voting is concerned, generally members of meta-organisation have one vote each, whilst in certain cases members with more resources may have more preferential votes or vetoing power (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). The voting mechanism may not always resolve the conflict between a minority, yet most-resourced members and majority of other members thus it may not always achieve consensus (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005).

Decision making problems and difficulties to take action subsequently impact the meta-organisation's capabilities in managing organisational change (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). Members of most meta-organisations continuously seek reform in the association yet are unable to achieve it, partially due to such structural challenges (Ahrne, Brusson and Seidl 2016). Also, member turnover is usually low hence internal organisational change is relatively slow and mostly influenced by internal changes within each individual member (Berkowitz and Bor 2018). Nonetheless, since each member may evolve on a different trajectory, there is potential for increased heterogeneity and amplification of issues discussed above (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). This also applies to changes in the external environment as meta-organisations tend to react with inertia to discontinuous change (König, Schulte and Enders 2012).

#### 2.4.4. Meta-organisations in sport

Vifell and Thedvall (2012) maintained that one of the reasons behind the emergence of meta-organisations such as international associations is to tackle transnational problems. To do so, the concerned stakeholders formalise their collective activities, procedures and working methods by establishing meta-organisations so it can serve them as a vehicle for implementation of legislations, regulations and standards whilst offering them a forum for discussion (Vifell and Thedvall 2012). They add that in certain cases, these meta-organisations that are set up at international level may begin to establish their presence at a more regional level as well. This is reflected in the process of emergence of meta-organisations in sports.

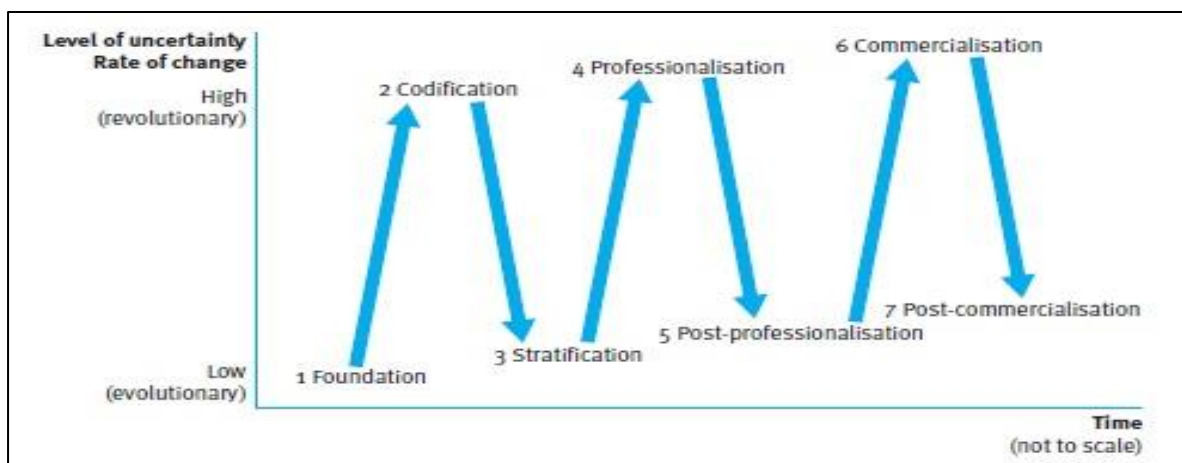


Figure 8- Trajectory of sport institutions over time, adapted from Beech (2004)

As a sport grows, more organisations in relation to that sport emerge. These may include grassroots level clubs and regional leagues, national governing bodies as well as international regulatory and administrative organisations. This is further reflected in the model of Beech (2004), which conceptualises the developmental steps that a given sport follows from inception all the way through to a stage where the sport is highly professionalised and commercialised. The proliferation of organisations, which according to Beech (2004) mainly begins at the stratification stage, is not limited to simply creation of new clubs and governing bodies in different territories. This is further reflected in the evolution of the Olympic Movement.



As explained by Chappelet and Kupler-Mabbot (2008), the IOC was established in 1894 to lead the Olympic Movement and promote its values. The original stakeholders of the Movement, highlighted in green, were organisations such as the local organising committees and the IOC that were mainly responsible for organising the events as well as the national and international governing bodies that managed the rules and administration of sports. However, as sports professionalised and commercialised, other organisations, highlighted in yellow, became stakeholders of the Movement as well (Chappelet and Kupler-Mabbot 2008). Furthermore, the increased complexities relating to legal issues in sport resulted in emergence of regulatory bodies such as WADA and the Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) (Chappelet and Kupler-Mabbot 2008).

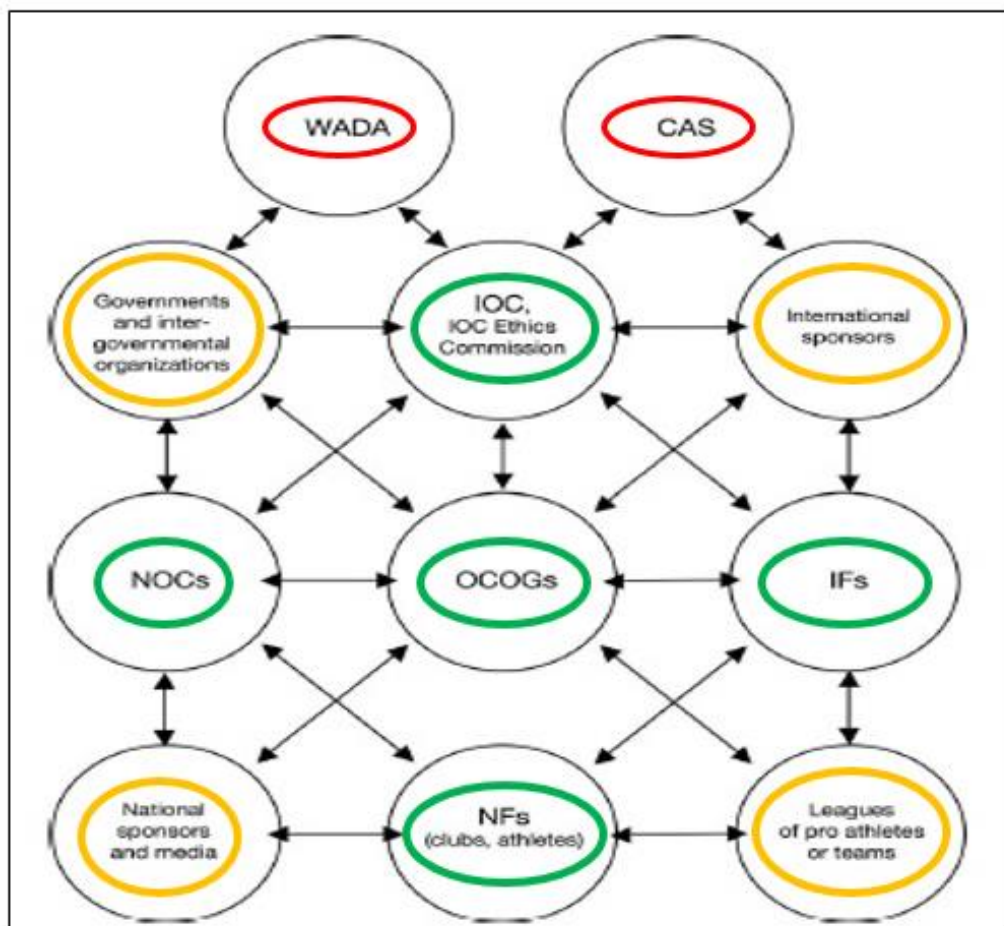
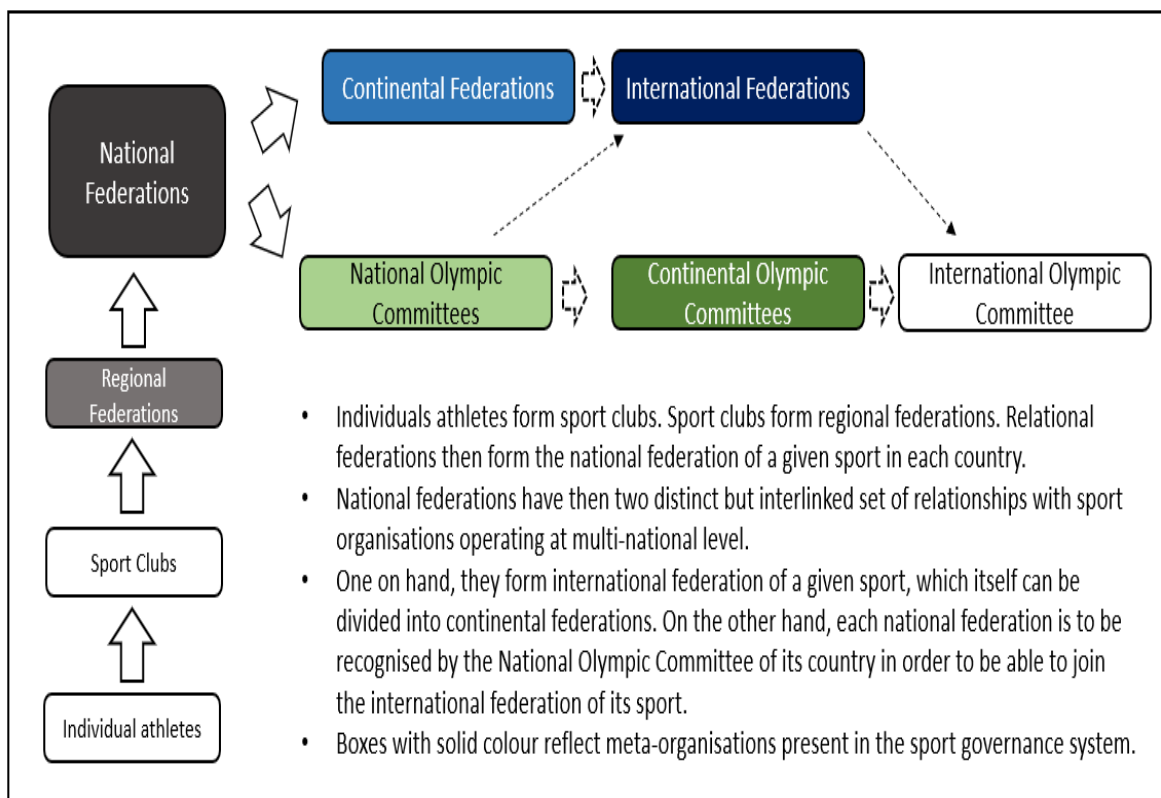


Figure 9 – Evolution of the Olympic Movement, adapted from Chappelet and Kupler-Mabbot (2008)

As demonstrated above, the evolution of the Movement was accompanied a with proliferation of a broad range of processes which required dedicated organisation and management. Subsequently, as more organisational actors entered the field of sports, interests of all stakeholders involved become more varied. The issues facing each segment of the sport industry, (e.g. athletes, coaching and performance, sponsorship, media and broadcasting, venues and infrastructure, legal and regulatory affairs, governing bodies, public stakeholders etc.) have become highly specialised. Stakeholders within each segment, whether as organisations or individuals, have mobilised themselves through creation of associations (Lapulme, Sonpar and Litz 2008). This process is recognised across two pillars.

The first pillar of meta-organisations in sport relates to the governance of sport and the organisations that administer various sporting disciplines. As shown in the model below, adapted from Brailsford (1992), the base of sport's multi-level governance system consists of clubs with individual members. Clubs form regional federations and subsequently regional federations form national governing bodies. This stratified model, as referred to in the model of Beech (2004), shows that from a regional level and above, sports are governed by meta-organisations

Figure 10- Outlook of sport governance system, adapted from Brailsford (1992)



The second pillar of meta-organisations in sport are associations that aim to reinforce the identity of the stakeholders within the Movement and promote their interests. This pillar of meta-organisations can themselves be split into two groups. The first group the associations of organisations that are reflected in Brailsford's model. These include associations such as GAISF, the case-study of this research, and association of national Olympic committees. The second group relates to association of organisations that are not explicitly reflected in the model Brailsford's model although they are directly connected to sports. These organisations may include association of broadcasters or sporting venues and leisure facilities.

Meta-organisations in sport			
Type	First pillar	Second pillar	
	Sport organisations	Unions and interest groups	
		Linked to first pillar	Independent of first pillar
Examples	Regional governing bodies	Association of governing bodies	Association of broadcasters
	National governing bodies	Association of national Olympic committees	Association of sporting venues
	International governing bodies	Multi-sport event organisers	Association of sport press organisations

Table 8- Overview of meta-organisations in sport

As far as meta-organisations in the first pillar are concerned, they are mostly a by-product of organisational evolution of sport (Beech 2004). Meta-organisations in different industries, depending on their purpose, may be designed differently (Berkowitz, Bucheli and Dumez 2017, Radnejad, Vredenburg and Woiceshyn 2017). Earlier sport organisations institutionalised such forms of organising in the organisation field and subsequent sports followed this isomorphic pattern (Nagel et al. 2015). Meta-organisations in the second pillar, however, have emerged more for facilitating collaboration and reinforcing the identity of their members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Most of the research in sport management has focused on meta-organisations in the first pillar (Parent and Hoye 2018). Arguably, this may have been due to lower public profile and immediate presence of meta-organisations of the second pillar. However, as described earlier in relation to the organisational controversies that impacted GAISF, this group of meta-organisations offer interesting complexities. Studying these intricacies can not only enhance the understanding about meta-organisations of this kind, but also broaden the knowledge on how various stakeholders of the sport industry are interconnected.

As described in the story of GAISF, one of the major influencers on the organisational crisis of GAISF was the IOC, an organisation which is not a member of GAISF. Federated associations either construct their own environment or adapt to environments previously set or continuously created by other stakeholders (Selsky 1998). As Cropper and Bor (2018) note, although Ahrne and Brunsson (2008) do elaborate on how meta-organisations reconfigure the environment of their members, they do not adequately address how such an environment is impacted by others. As meta-organisations are formed and members of the meta-organisation independently evolve, the boundaries within and across their ecosystem are also moved (Cropper and Bor 2018). Therefore, it is critical to consider other important stakeholders that may be non-members yet may interlink with this ecosystem (Cropper and Bor 2018). Moreover, the environment of meta-organisations and its members change over time (Cropper and Bor 2018, Vale, Branco and Ribeiro 2016).

Spillman (2017) called for studies on meta-organisations that examine their evolution over time, mainly because the aims, objectives and organisational dynamics of both the meta-organisations and its members may change. Ahrne, Brusson and Kerwer (2016) have also emphasised on the needs for studies that examine organisational evolution over time. By synthesising elements of resource dependency theory and prospect theory, Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) developed a descriptive stakeholder theory which corresponds with the organisational life cycle. They argue that at any given stage of the organisational life cycle, certain stakeholders will be more important than others because they have the capability to satisfy critical needs of the organisation. Identifying the stakeholders that become more important as the organisation evolves enables the organisation to strategise accordingly by prioritising management of interdependencies with critical stakeholders. The emphasis on time and organisational lifecycle remarks the need to introduce an organisational lifecycle model in order to guide the theoretical direction of the research. This is discussed in the subsequent chapter.

## 2.5. Organisational lifecycle

Sport is characterised with a degree of institutionalisation (Amis, Slack and Hinnings 2002, Nagel et al, 2015, Slack and Hinning 1994). Within institutionalised fields professional associations are crucial entities with multifaceted roles though their degree of power and influence in relation to their stakeholders depends on the stage of life cycle or the state of change they are at (Greenwood, Suddaby and Hinings 2002). As explained in the conclusion of the previous chapter, scholars have called for studies that examine evolution of meta-organisations over time (Ahrne, Brusson and Kerwer 2016, Cropper and Bor 2018, Spillman 2017). Also, it was noted that at any given stage of the organisational lifecycle, certain stakeholders will be more important than others because they have the capability to satisfy the critical needs of the organisation (Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001). Given the emphasis on the organisational lifecycle, it is important to utilise this concept as a theoretical tool to further inform the study (Ferreira, Azevedo and Cruz 2011). This approach not only allows the introduction of a new concept to the literature in sports management, it also expands the dialogue on meta-organisations.

The chapter begins with an overview of the concept of organisational lifecycle by highlighting its main aspects. This is supported by presenting a brief review of literature and remarking the benefits and drawbacks of organisational lifecycle models. Next, the organisational lifecycles for various organisational types are reviewed and their applicability to the context of meta-organisations is discussed. The conclusion of the chapter details the model of D'ahunno and Zuckerman (1987) that was used as part of the study.

### 2.5.1. Organisational lifecycle: an overview

The origins of the concept of 'lifecycle' roots back to as early as 1912 (Yolles et al. 2011). This concept has demonstrated a diverse range of applicability, having been utilised by researchers to develop various models such as family lifecycles (Rotolo 2000) to product lifecycle (Klepper 1996). As far as organisations are concerned, organisational lifecycle has been subject to various conceptual developments and empirical tests, which itself has resulted in the production of several lifecycle models (Adizes 1979, Churchill and Lewis 1983, Greiner 1998, Hanks et al. 1994, Javalgi and Dion 1999, Kazanjian 1988, Kimberly and Miles 1980, Lichtenstein and Lyons 2008, Miller and Friesen 1984, Mintzberg, 1984, Scott and Bruce 1987, Shim, Eastlick and Lotz 2000, Smith, Mitchell and Summer 1985).

Organisational lifecycle essentially refers to “predictable change in organisations from one state or condition to another” (Cameron and Whetten 1983:43). The concept emphasises on evolutionary change in organisations by assuming that organisational development is expected to follow an a priori sequence of transitions rather than to occur randomly or metamorphically (Cameron and Whetten 1983). The importance of understanding organisational lifecycle lies in the idea that when an organisation is transitioning from one stage to another, the parameters for evaluating its institutional effectiveness change and those criteria that were applicable in one stage of the lifecycle will not necessarily continue to be in other stages (Cameron and Whetten 1981, Quin and Cameron 1983). As mentioned above, the literature on organisational lifecycle encompasses a multitude of models with varying lengths, ranging from three-stage models to eleven-stage models (Lee, Kim and Cha 2011). There are benefits in adopting a lifecycle approach when studying organisations, although the drawbacks of such models shall not be omitted.

Each stage of an organisation’s lifecycle entails problems that need to be solved before the organisation can transition into the next stage (Cameron and Whetten 1983). Ferreira, Azevedo and Cruz 2011) highlight the role of organisational lifecycle as an analytical tool for explaining organisational evolution and changing processes. Formulation of strategies, setting of processes and priorities of top-level management all depend on the lifecycle stage of the organisation (Auzair and Langfield-Smith 2005). Upon entering the newer stage, fresh obstacles emerge hence effective management is required across the organisation’s lifecycle in order to tackle these problems (Kimberly and Miles 1980). Hunt, Baliga and Peterson (1988) also place great emphasis on the role of apex leaders across an organisation’s lifecycle, particularly at times of transition where strategic decision making can have a significant impact on the conditions and outcomes of progress. Furthermore, as the organisation shifts through its different phases, motivational stimulants changes as well (Smith and Miner 1983). Obtaining a thorough understanding of the various lifecycle stages, opportunities in each stage and the potential hazards at every level of development can enhance an organisation’s ability to make smoother transitions as it moves forward through its lifecycle (Bonn and Pettigrew 2009).

Several studies have utilised organisational lifecycle as an analytical tool in order to examine the relationship between a particular management concern and the lifecycle stage. For example, Chiu and Yen (2014) examined the relationship between organisational lifecycle stage and port governance approaches. From a corporate social responsibility perspective, Dibrell et al. (2011) studied the effect of organisational lifecycle stage on the relationship between market orientation and firm innovativeness. Furthermore, Wang and Singh (2014) examined the link between organisational lifecycle stage and CEO compensation in firms whilst Tam and Gray (2016) investigated the link between organisational learning and organisational lifecycle. Similarly, Mitsakis (2014) explored the implications of the business lifecycle stage on HRM strategies. In addition, Souza, Guerreiro and Oliveira (2014) researched the relationship between the maturity level of supply chain processes and the company's organisational lifecycle. Additionally, Su, Kevin and Herb (2013) studied the associated between choice of management control systems and the organisational lifecycle of the firm.

Although most empirical studies of organisational lifecycle have focused on the relationship between a given management issue (e.g. HRM, CSR etc.) and a specific lifecycle stage, it is insightful to examine an organisation across its entire lifecycle (Lester Parnell and Carraher 2003, Lester, Parnell and Menefee 2009). Also, despite the substantial focus of the literature on the lifecycle of firms, there are important implications of the organisational lifecycle model that can be applied to organisations other than firms (Cropper and Bor 2018).

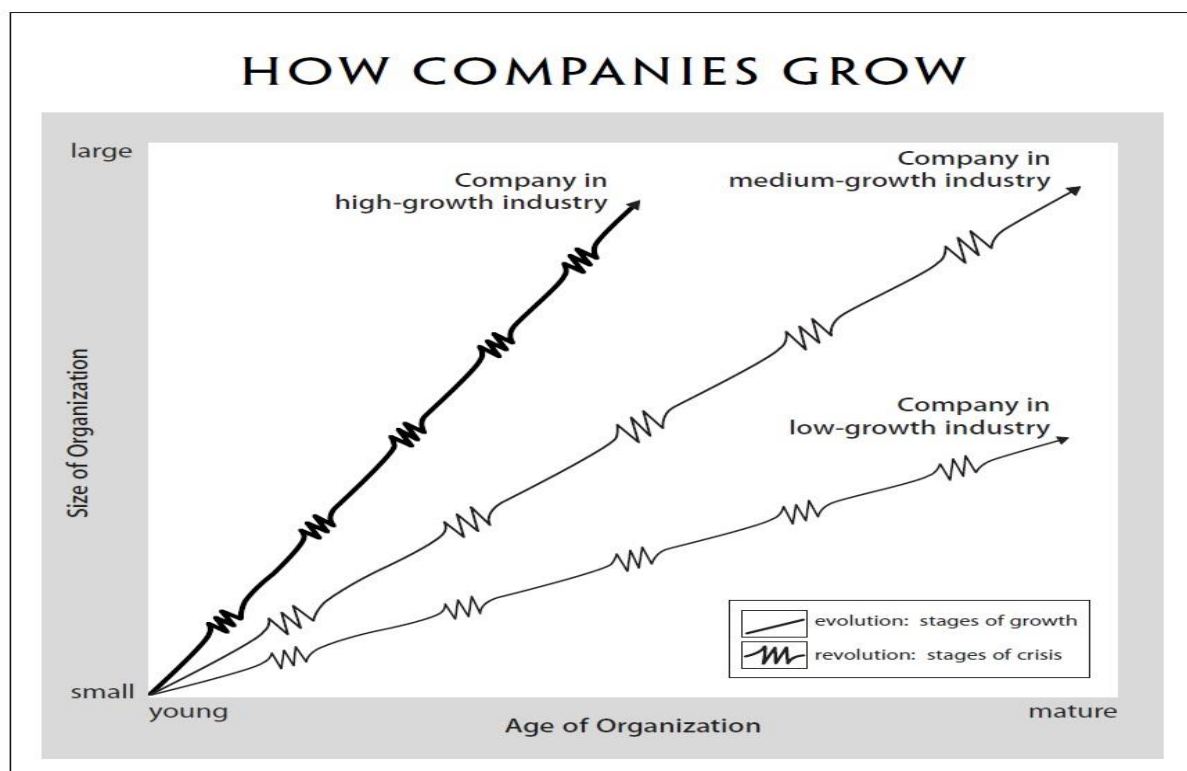
Nonetheless, there are limitations to the organisational lifecycle models that need to be acknowledged. It is important to note that such lifecycle models are not designed to predict the perfect trajectory path for an organisation's since in any organisation's lifecycle, there will be unsuccessful phases (Miller and Freisen 1983). Organisational lifecycle has effectively been an evolved concept that was originally a product of a crude biological metaphor thus its principles follow relatively fixed patterns, whereas real-life examples have shown that organisations may not always follow such patterns in a linear manner (Bonn and Pettigrew 2009). More recent literature on organisational lifecycle has shifted its focus away from stages and placed it on "tipping point", "modes" and paradigms (Phelps, Adams and Bessant 2007, Yoells et al. 2011). In other words, it has been argued that organisations tend to phase in and out of various states, such as growth or decline, whilst they may re-enter similar modes in the future. It has been stressed that each organisational lifecycle model has applicability to a specific organisational context, thus it is critical to follow the model that is most appropriate to the context of the enquiry (Lee et al. 2011).

### 2.5.2. Organisational lifecycle models

One of the primary models of organisational lifecycle was developed by Greiner (1998), who argued that during a 5-stage lifecycle organisations go through a series of evolutionary transitions with revolutionary intervals. As shown below, Greiner's model conceptualises an organisation's trajectory path based on changes in size and age of the organisation. Such a model captures crucial insights in the sense that it does consider the fact that transition from one stage to another is characterised with a revolutionary phase and evolution is not free from turbulence.

Nevertheless, it is important to consider the conditions that influence the organisation at each stage. As shown in the figure below, Greiner (1998) characterises each stage using factors such as management focus, organisational structure, top-management style, control systems and management reward emphasis. However, the characteristics of certain stages do not sufficiently link to the characteristics of meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). These mismatches are also observable in several other lifecycle models hence it is important to select a model that is most applicable to meta-organisations.

*Figure 11 – Standard firm trajectory path*





Considering the difference between individual-based firms and meta-organisations such as international associations, there are several areas where lifecycle models of firms may not appropriately reflect the potential trajectory path of a meta-organisation. For example, as the firm grows its performance management system may have an increased focus on growth in sales and profits (Greiner 1998, Miller and Freisen 1984). However, many international associations operate as non-profit organisations and meeting specific financial targets may not be their primary objective (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005, Yeh and Taylor 2008).

Furthermore, lifecycle models relating to firms state that organisations seek to survive through the challenges of early stages (Greiner 1998). Lester, Parnell and Carraher (2003) propose a model that places survival as the next main phase after formation, arguing that the primary focus of the firm is to generate enough revenue to survive. It is maintained that the firms aim to stay afloat and therefore adopt cost-efficient approaches in order increase their chance of survival during the early stages (Greiner 1998). However, as mentioned in the previous chapter, one of the early challenges for meta-organisations is to convey the purpose of it to its stakeholders (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Relatively, meta-organisations are not costly to set up hence the characteristics of their early stages are not particularly similar to firms (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016).

*Figure 12 – Organisational practices across standard stages of lifecycle, adapted from Greiner (1998)*

CATEGORY	PHASE 1	PHASE 2	PHASE 3	PHASE 4	PHASE 5
Management Focus	Make and sell	Efficiency of operations	Expansion of market	Consolidation of organization	Problem solving and innovation
Organizational Structure	Informal	Centralized and functional	Decentralized and geographical	Line staff and product groups	Matrix of teams
Top-Management Style	Individualistic and entrepreneurial	Directive	Delegative	Watchdog	Participative
Control System	Market results	Standards and cost centers	Reports and profit centers	Plans and investment centers	Mutual goal setting
Management Reward Emphasis	Ownership	Salary and merit increases	Individual bonus	Profit sharing and stock options	Team bonus

Moreover, the competitions that firms face throughout their lifecycle is driven by external organisations (Greiner 1998). However, one of the key challenges of a meta-organisation is not only that it may compete with another meta-organisation, it may also compete with its own members or may embody a group of competing organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2010a). In addition, most organisational lifecycle models, either implicitly or explicitly, assume that the organisation is relatively inexperienced upon formation (Greiner 1998, Phelps, Adams and Bessant 2007). Conversely, when meta-organisations are formed, they harness the intellectual capital that exists within their member organisations to various degrees (Vale, Branco and Ribeiro 2016).

More specific models of the organisational lifecycle relate to small businesses and joint ventures. Although there are critical nuisances, models relating to these types of organisations showcase a higher level of applicability to meta-organisations. For instance, studies carried out by Dodge and Robbins (1992) and Doge, Fullerton and Robbins (1994) suggest that once a small business formed, is usually experiences two stages of growth, one early and one late, until it reaches stability. In the early growth stage, for example, it has been argued that the firm will face a high degree of uncertainty, a factor that is detrimental to its growth. However, once past this stage the firm, at a slower rate compared to the previous phase, will go through a second period of growth that entails securing the firms position and sustaining the current levels of profitability. This is followed by a period of stability and then it will be up to the discretion of the owner and senior management to decide whether to expand the business and become a medium-size entity or remain small.

In a relatively similar scenario, the early challenge is attracting members and ensuring the purpose of the meta-organisation is adhered to by members. Depending on the context of the organisation, the detailed characteristics of the second stage may vary however the essential aspect in the second stage is attracting the strongest stakeholders in the field (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). After the meta-organisation has established its legitimacy, its members and executive leaders can influence the extent which the meta-organisation grows as an important association in relation to its stakeholders (Berkowitz and Bor 2018, Spillman 2017). Compared to small businesses, however, the difference is that if the business fails at the growth stage it may entirely collapse (Dodge and Robinson 1992, Dodge, Fullerton and Robbins 1994). Nevertheless, the meta-organisation may simply be marginalised, unable to exercise any meaningful influence or become simply a set of boundaries within a particular organisational setting (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

Joint-ventures are another form of organisations that have lifecycles with signs of similarities to that of meta-organisations. Kogut (1988), who examined the organisational lifecycle of joint ventures by focusing on their creation and termination rates, mentioned that like any other group of organisations, joint ventures are also subject to undergoing a cyclical process throughout their lifecycle that is characterised with creation, institutionalisation, and subsequently, with high probability, termination. As mentioned in previous chapters, organisations may form associations or engage in other collaborative initiatives to mobilise themselves as stakeholders against common threats, or reduce their dependencies (Davis and Cobbs 2009, Van Puyvelde et al. 2012). These are also prominent reasons behind the creation of joint ventures, that are similar to those of meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008, Kogut 1988). Nonetheless, there are some key differences in the purpose and tenure of joint-ventures that differentiate them from meta-organisations. Joint ventures are mostly created in order to share resources and exploit economic efficiencies, as opposed to meta-organisations that mainly focus on empowering the identity of members and establishing their legitimacy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008, Kogut 1988). Similarly, once the economic needs are addressed joint ventures may be dissolved hence as joint ventures age they become more likely to be terminated (Kogut 1988). On the other hand, due to their different purpose and organisational conditions meta-organisations survive through decades, particularly in sport (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008, Storm and Nielsen 2012).

### 2.5.3. Lifecycle model for meta-organisations

One of the few studies that have focused on the lifecycle of meta-organisations was the research carried out by D'ainno and Zuckerman (1987) who developed a model for a federation of organisations. Their model was based on research on federation of hospitals. Such multi-organisational collaboration is led by a management group that is responsible for coordinating and directing the activities of the involved hospitals in order to manage the interdependencies and achieve higher levels of efficiency.

The work of D'ainno and Zuckerman (1987) has recently been cited by scholarly work related to federations, where the notion of “meta-organisation” is discussed (Berends and Sydow 2019, Toubiana, Oliver and Bradshaw 2017). However, given the focus of this model on resource dependency and economic efficiency, particular areas of management literature such as procurement research have been the main adopter of this model. For example, studies such as Bakker et al. (2008), Bakker, Walker and Harland (2006), Huber, Sweeny and Smyth (2004) and Doucette (1997) have mostly focused on organised purchasing groups, procurement coalitions and cooperative purchasing, though not through meta-organisation theoretical lens. Hence, there is potential for empirical evaluation of the applicability and usefulness of this model for meta-organisations in sports, as well as outside sports. Also, exploration of distinct theories such as organisational evolution, growth or adaption (e.g. Abatecola 2013,2014), linked to the organisational lifecycle model can be further investigated.

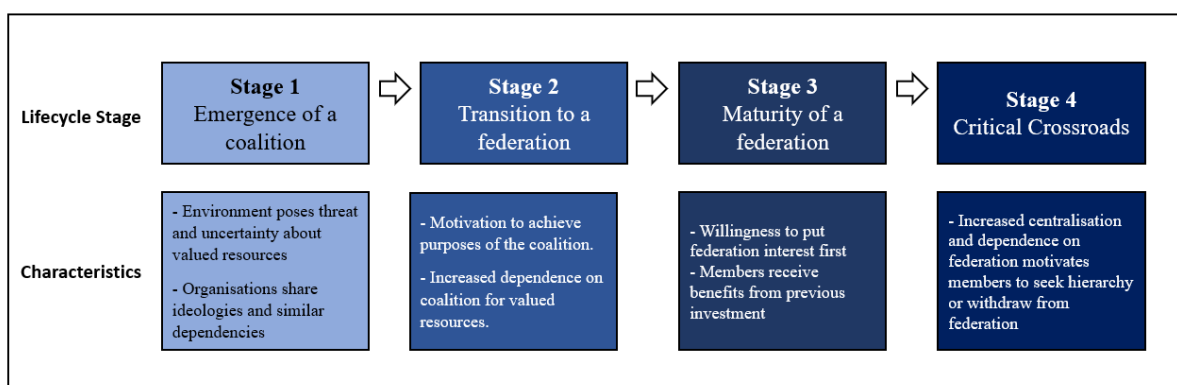


Figure 13- Organisational lifecycle model for meta-organisation, adapted from D'ainno and Zuckerman (1987)

As shown in the 4-stage model above, the collective group is initially composed of organisations with shared interests and challenges however there may be uncertainties about how collective action can empower each organisation. Next, the association of organisations seeks to establish its legitimacy and credibility amongst its stakeholders which subsequently leads to dependence of members on its resources. These conditions adequately match with the conditions of meta-organisations (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008, Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). As mentioned previously, developing a new and comprehensive lifecycle model requires an extensive study, often via quantitative studies which encompass the examination of a large sample of organisations. Given the purpose, scope and limitations of this study, the aim is not to construct a novel model. Nonetheless, the above model is used as an analytical tool “map out” the trajectory of a given meta-organisation, and therefore to assist with examining the organisational evolution of GAISF over time.

## 2.6. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present a detailed review of literature in relation to the context of this study. This research uses processual analysis to examine the trajectory path of GAISF, an international sport association, through the theoretical lens of meta-organisations. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the main aim of this research is to add depth to current understanding of evolution of meta-organisations across various stages of their organisational lifecycle. Fulfilling this aim can help to explain why, within a particular organisational field, some meta-organisations maintain a solidified position despite governance failure, whilst others are severely impacted as a consequence of a governance failure. Also, it contributes to meta-organisation theory itself by refining some of its key propositions across both strategic and organisational dimensions. Some of the key areas where meta-organisation theory lacks clarity and requires further development include the role of non-members, criteria for determining extent of heterogeneity as well as current propositions in relation to hierarchy within meta-organisations. Contributions of this research to these underdeveloped areas of meta-organisation theory are further explained in subsequent chapters

Theoretical component	Research implication
Governance (failure)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Remarks the importance of governance research in the sport management literature.</li> <li>- Outlines the relevant "mode" of governance relevant to the case study of the research</li> <li>-</li> </ul>
Processual analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Provides an overarching framework that guides the study</li> <li>- Impacting theory selection and research design</li> <li>- Offers data analysis framework (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.1)</li> </ul>
Classic theories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Offer useful insights in terms of why meta-organisations may be formed and what challenges they may face.</li> <li>- Lack of conceptual alignment inherent in the assumptions of these theories calls for considering alternative viewpoints</li> </ul>
Meta-organisation theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Offers bespoke and relevant propositions in relation to governance and behaviour of organisations composed of other organisations.</li> <li>- There are under-developed areas that requires refinement via further empirical research</li> </ul>
Organisational lifecycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Useful analytical tool that helps to theoretically map out the trajectory of the case study organisation, which is critical for the purpose of this study</li> </ul>

Table 9 – Summary of main conceptual components underpinning the theoretical framework of the research

# Chapter 3: Methodology

## 3.1. Introduction

In the previous chapters, the aims and objectives of the research were stated. The focus of the research was further expanded on throughout a critical literature review, as part of which shortcomings in the literature on governance of inter-organisational arrangements in sport were highlighted. The theoretical aspects of the study, relating to meta-organisational theory and organisational lifecycle, were also discussed. In order to showcase rigour, validity and reliability in qualitative research, particularly in case-studies, not only it is required to use robust methodologies, but also to provide a transparent report on the practical procedure of the research (Bluhm et al. 2011, Bowen 2008, Pratt 2008). Such transparency is not always easily found in the published research. Reviews of published qualitative case-studies in various management disciplines have highlighted the absence of adequate clarifications regarding certain methodological considerations (Barratt, Choi and Lee 2011, Baškarada 2014, Carlsen and Glenton 2011, Mason 2010). This chapter attempts to offer adequate clarity and transparency regarding how research methods were applied in this study.

The main purpose of this chapter is to present the methodological elements of the research. This is done by focusing on two key areas. Firstly, this chapter aims to provide a clarification regarding the methodological decisions of this research. As part of this, foundational methodological elements of the research such as the underlying philosophy, approach to theory development, research design, research strategy, data collection and data analysis methods are explained. The delineation of these aspects of the research is vital in order to demonstrate that the research not only has been carried out coherently, but also appropriately in relation to the context (Johnson and Clark 2006, Oliver 2008). Secondly, the chapter demonstrates how the research was carried out in practice, both in terms of collecting the data as well as analysis of the data. In this chapter, the components of the data corpus, that is the entirety of collected data, are detailed. Furthermore, the data set, which is the portion of the data corpus that was used for analysis, is highlighted (Braun and Clarke 2006). This is followed by outlining the data management procedure, how the collected data was analysed and subsequently synthesised into organised findings.

Buchnan and Bryman (2009) declare that current organisational research is indicative of widening boundaries, multi-paradigmatic approaches and innovative methodologies. They go further to label the field of organisational research fragmented, mainly because there is no identifiable consensus or general agreement regarding concepts, theoretical frameworks and methodological approaches. It has also been underlined that the research should not be carried out based on a pre-determined approach; rather the problem under study and its surrounding circumstances should dictate the strategy, design and methods of the research (Smith 2010). This means that for a given phenomenon, the researcher needs to evaluate the issue and identify the most appropriate approach to study that phenomenon even if it results in implementation of methods that are not totally aligned with the researcher's preferences. Buchanan and Bryman (2009) expand on this and argue that demonstration of competence in research methods for organisational studies should not be limited to expression of consistency between research questions and research methods; instead a broader range of factors that include, but are not limited to, organisational, historical, political, evidential and personal influences should also be taken into account. These influential factors, illustrated in their model below, inform the methodological approach of this research as well.

The remainder of this chapter is structured in the following manner. First, the underlying philosophical considerations that inform the research are explained. These considerations predominantly encompass ontological, epistemological and reasoning facets of the study. Secondly, the methodological choices that are made in order to conduct this research are presented. This includes the methodological approach of the study, the research strategy and research methods. The next part of the chapter discusses the justification of data collection and data analysis methods. Also, a report of how the selected methods were utilised in practice is provided. The chapter concludes with summarising notes and an illustration of key methodological attributes of the research.



## The System of Influences on Choice of Organizational Research Methods

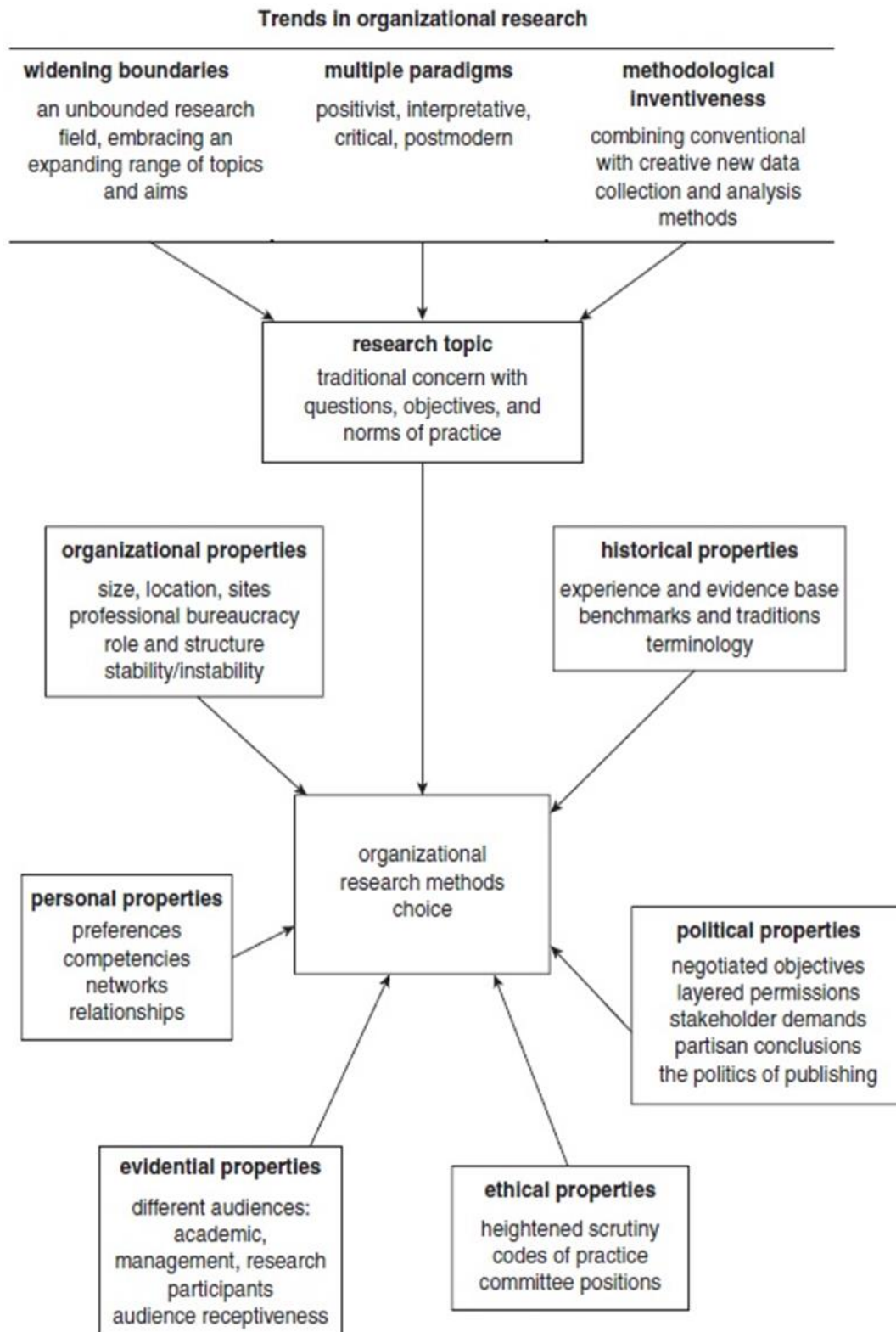


Figure 14- Influential factors impacting methodological decisions, adapted from Buchanan and Bryman (2009)

### 3.2. Research Philosophy

The aim of this section is to provide an account of how the research approaches social realities, the development of theory and the conceptualisation of knowledge. Research philosophy is a fundamental part of any study that guides the research regarding how the phenomenon under study should be approached (Saunders et al. 2016). In order to adopt a sound research methodology, the research should be guided by the researcher's philosophical stance and the phenomenon that is to be investigated (Holden and Lynch 2004).

There are scholars that believe researchers, often unnecessarily, spend an excessive amount of time on elaborating the philosophical details of their study, holding the view that these considerations tend to have a marginal impact on what the researcher practically does (Sandelowski 2010). Pettigrew (2013) acknowledges this as well and admits that in the process of conducting research, one of the most tiresome tasks may be elaborating on all methodological distinctions (e.g. ontology, epistemology, axiology etc.). However, he emphasises that it is important for the reader to be made aware of the assumptions inherent in the philosophy of the researcher as these assumptions may shape or direct the approach taken in the study. As illustrated in the figure below, often it is the differences in philosophical positions that results in researchers that who studying similar problems arriving at different conclusions (Bondas and Hall 2007).

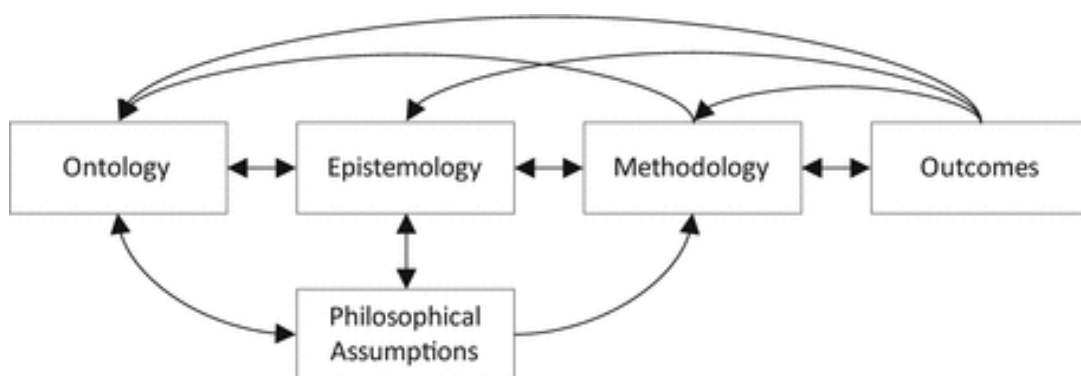


Figure 15 – The influence of research philosophy on research outcomes, adapted from Schlegel (2015)

### 3.2.1. Ontology

As Saunders et al. (2016) note, philosophical attributes of the research such as its ontology and epistemology are integral parts of any inquiry and they need to be communicated to the reader, particularly within a PhD thesis (Oliver 2008). Philosophy, on its own and in its simplest sense, refers to one's belief about a phenomenon (Smith 2010). However, as far as research philosophy is concerned, it could be interpreted in a more complex fashion as it substantially underpins the research process and also impacts various facets of the study, including the methods implemented for data collection and data analysis.

Although ontological considerations require a reasonable explanation, it must be remarked that these attributes of the research largely concern the author's personal views and values. In fact, within the broad field of business and management research, there is no agreement on the 'best' research philosophy amongst scholars (Tsoukas and Kndusen 2003). Therefore, it should be noted that the ontological and subsequently epistemological position of the researcher is always subject to personal assumptions and it is not always possible to provide an evidence-based justification to approve one's research philosophy as the best possible philosophical approach (Saunders et al. 2016).

Ontological dynamics, which set the very starting point for most researchers, involve the philosophy of existence and one's perception of social reality (Gratton and Jones 2010). On one hand, objectivist believers argue that all social phenomena exist independent of social actors, whilst on the other hand subjectivists stress the importance of social actors and the ways through which they continuously accomplish and impact social phenomena (Smith 2010). The essence of any cognition, particularly of a social nature, relies on acquiring an understanding of how social actors construct and interact with their world (Amis 2005). In other words, each individual's perception of reality is determined by the values they have been taught, the beliefs they hold, the cognitive procedures they have undergone and the experiences they have faced. Thus, for interpreting a social phenomenon more than one correct way exists (Edwards and Skinner 2009). Social actors embedded in sport organisations, international federations and in general meta-organisations in sport are not an exception to this principle (Smith 2010). Therefore, this research is aligned with the subjectivism paradigm and asserts that social phenomena are constantly revised.

### 3.2.2. Epistemology

It is vital to ensure that the ontological position and the epistemological stance of the research mutually relate to each other (Saunders et al. 2016). The subjectivism standpoint influences the epistemology of the research (Saunders et al. 2016). This layer of the research philosophy deals with determining what could be considered as knowledge and how it should be acquired (Gratton and Jones 2010). If one was to place different epistemological paradigms on a continuum, positivism would be placed on one end of the continuum and interpretivism would be placed in the middle and, arguably, pragmatism would be placed on the other (Gratton and Jones 2010). It has to be noted that other philosophies such as critical realism or post-modernism may be placed in between these major philosophical paradigms (Saunders et al. 2016). However, presenting a detailed discussion regarding each and every research philosophy is beyond the scope of this chapter. Hence, this section mostly focuses on elaborating on why positivism is not the undertaken approach of the study, and also explains the rationale behind holding onto interpretivism and not leaning towards the far end of the continuum which is pragmatism.

Positivism, possibly the most dominant framework of the past few centuries in all disciplines, is linked to the school of thought that maintains everything is measurable and stresses the utilisation of the methods used in natural sciences (Gratton and Jones 2010). However, Buchanan and Bryman (2009) note that quantitative studies with deductive reasoning, which predominantly emerge from a positivist epistemological approach, no longer dominate the field of organisational research. Deetz (2009) further elaborate on this and highlight the alternative philosophical paradigms which scholars of organisational studies have based their research on, with interpretivism being one of the most commonly adopted research epistemologies. More specific to the context of sport management research, Edwards and Skinner (2009) maintain that sport management research also, to a certain degree, has extended its boundaries, going beyond the traditional perception that sport management scholarly work should be conducted in a similar way to objective natural sciences, merely in an attempt to seek legitimacy as a distinct discipline. Hence interpretivism, the contrasting paradigm to positivism, has been adopted more frequently, mostly because sports are social phenomena and those who participate in it, as well as those who administer it, are all interwoven into this social substance (Edwards and Skinner 2009).

As Saunders et al. (2016) state, interpretivism places a significant emphasis on the differences between social realities of human nature and physical phenomena, which are mainly studied in natural sciences. They further add that the social realities of humans are complex and depending on the researcher's background, experiences and beliefs those realities may be understood and interpreted differently. Gratton and Jones (2010) also emphasise on this and maintain that the interpretivist paradigm allows the researcher to explore the social problem and reveal in-depth explanations about a particular phenomenon rather than deducing them from measurements, which may limit the researcher's ability to obtain rich insights into the reality of the problem under study and its surrounding context. This stems from the notion that it is not possible to always produce definite laws that are universally generalisable (Saunders et al. 2016). Considering that this research aims to deliver in-depth explanations regarding questions that mainly address why and how a phenomenon is occurring, rather than what is occurring or how much of it is occurring, the epistemological stance of the study leans toward the interpretivist paradigm (Yanow and Ybema 2009).

Pragmatism, according to Kelemen and Rumens (2008), places an emphasis on the practicality of concepts and holds that concepts are relevant only when actions can be supported by them. According to Saunders et al. (2016), pragmatism seeks to provide reconciliation between the ontological variances of objectivism and subjectivism and whilst taking into account facts and rigorous knowledge, it also considers values and contextualised experiences. Nonetheless, despite the fact that pragmatism, similar to interpretivism, stems from an ontological position where realities are approached as complex, rich and external, it epistemologically differs from interpretivism mainly because its knowledge creation relies on theories that are considered to be practically 'true' and it is reflective of studies that aim to deliver practical solutions for future practice (Kelemen and Rumens 2008, Saunders et al. 2016). This study relies on theories such as meta-organisation theory which is relatively recent and has not yet been conceptually and empirically developed extensively, and this research aims to address these shortcomings. In other words, the study is not based on theories that are believed to be practically true, at least not from a pragmatic perspective. Also, the main contributions of the study are particularly beneficial to literature and theory. Although the findings can certainly inform practice, they cannot be held as overly practical solutions that pragmatism call for. Therefore, the research distances itself from pragmatism and leans toward interpretivism.

### 3.2.3. Reasoning approach

The epistemological position of the research subsequently influences the approaches that the researcher adopts in order to develop a theory and generate knowledge (Saunders et al. 2016). As stated by Mantere and Ketokivi (2013:1), “the objective of scientific reasoning is to justify new knowledge in a scientific field.” Three main forms of scientific reasoning include deduction, induction and abduction (Ketokivi and Mantere 2010).

Deductive reasoning entails deriving logical conclusions from a set of premises (Mantere and Ketokivi 2013, Saunders et al. 2016). In other words, the validity of proposed theories is tested based on the made observations. Conversely, induction begins with the identification of a gap in knowledge and observations are made in order to derive conclusions to fill that gap. Similar to induction, abductive reasoning also relies on known premises to generate testable conclusions, where initial findings, formulate a conceptual framework and subsequent data collection tests that framework.

Given the ontological and epistemological positions of this study, deductive reasoning is not used to address the research questions. The study seeks to further develop meta-organisation theory and responds to the calls for further research on this concept by its pioneers Ahrne and Brunnsen (2008). Although some of the findings of this research may contradict some of the arguments of Ahrne and Brunnsen (2008), the aim is not to solely test this theory deductively, especially not using only a single case study. Rather, the aim is to inform this theory and develop it further, so that it can then be tested in the future on a larger sample of organisations.

As noted by Saunders et al. (2016), one of the key differences between induction and abduction is that inductive reasoning leads the researcher toward building theories, whereas knowledge generation in abductive reasoning occurs mostly via the incorporation of existing theories in order to build new theories or, where appropriate, develop or modify existing theories. Also, abductive reasoning is recommended when the initial research idea has emerged following an observation of a surprising development (Ketokivi and Mantere 2010), which is very similar to the context of this study and the events of post- Battle of Sochi. Considering this and also the point that the study implements existing theories and aims to develop them and makes particular modifications in order to increase their contextual applicability, it can be stated that the approach of the research toward theory development possesses more of the characteristics of abductive reasoning.

### 3.2.4. Axiology

In the past many philosophers did not distinguish extensively between axiological and epistemological issues (Hart 1971). However, more recently researchers have recognised the importance of axiological issues as a distinct element of research philosophy in methodologies of their research (Saunders et al. 2016). This branch of philosophy refers to the values and ethics of the researcher and the roles which these elements have in the process of the research (Saunders et al. 2016). According to Heron (1996), human action, such as any research conducted, is driven by values. Therefore, researcher's personal values have an essential impact on the approach of the researcher towards the problem under investigation. In fact, those values may be the primary motives for a researcher to investigate something.

Axiological considerations of any study are linked to the ontological and epistemological positions of the researcher. Positivist researchers who subscribe to the ontology of objectivism claim that research is conducted value-free whilst the researcher is an independent actor that is solely conducting the study objectively (Saunders et al. 2016). However, this study is conducted based on the ontological position of subjectivism and an interpretivist epistemology. Therefore, it is stated that this research is bound by the values of the researcher, who is also an inseparable part of the study.

It is important to also clarify the ethical considerations of the research. Research ethics are critical consideration of any study (Oliver 2008). Organisational research has particularly drawn a notable amount of ethical scrutiny in recent years, due to the political and social implications that the result of organisational research may impose on studied subjects, whether organisational themselves or the individual participants (Buchanan and Bryman 2009). In this study, ethical considerations are an integral part of the research methodology. The study is approved by an ethical committee at Coventry University. All participants were treated with confidentiality and anonymity. Also, the scope and purpose of the study was communicated to all participants in advance and their consent was acquired.

### 3.3. Research methodology

The philosophical attributes of the research subsequently direct the study towards certain research designs and methodologies. However, methodological choices that a researcher makes require justification because within every philosophical research paradigm, there is a broad range of methodological options and it is the researcher's responsibility to identify the appropriate choices (Saunders et al. 2016). Furthermore, as illustrated previously in the model of Buchanan and Bryman (2009), there are a wide range of factors that may influence the researcher's method selection. This section addresses these considerations and delivers a justification regarding the selected research strategy and methods.

#### 3.3.1. Theoretical approach

One of the first methodological choices that a researcher needs to make is to determine whether to take a quantitative approach or a qualitative approach (Saunders et al. 2016). It is also possible to combine the two and adopt a mixed method approach (Smith 2010). Positivist paradigm often entails quantitative approaches (Gratton and Jones 2010). In contrast, an interpretivist paradigm usually entails qualitative approaches (Denzin and Lincoln 2011). This study adopts a qualitative approach.

Miles and Huberman (1994) advise researchers to consider four factors of local grounding, richness and holism, sustained period and causality as well as lived meanings in order to assess whether a qualitative approach should be taken. Local grounding is a factor in this research. The study's focus is on meta-organisations in sport and particularly how they emerge, evolve over time and respond to the constantly changing environment. The governance failure occurred in GAISF, and its subsequent repercussions stimulated the motives behind this study. Therefore, the specific context and the organisation under investigation are of particular importance (Lee 1999). Furthermore, in order to robustly address the questions of the study, in-depth insights are required. This research is aiming to improve the existing understanding about a particular phenomenon, rather than reporting a certain set of findings to approve or disprove a hypothesis. It is not possible to deliver contributing explanations regarding the fundamental reasons behind the emergence of a meta-organisation in sport, and the trajectory path that they follow throughout their evolution as an organisation, without examining the



organisation's history, its journey over time and a thorough exploration of the organisation's key dynamics (Pettigrew 1990). Hence it can be stated that richness and holism as well as sustained period and causality are all essential factors in this study. Additionally, in order to understand how organisations make decisions in relation to the associations they are a member of, it is important to learn about the perceptions of the decision-makers of those organisations. This reflects on the importance of the lived meanings of the participants in this study.

It is true that compared to qualitative approaches, quantitative methods generate results that are relatively more independent from the researcher's point of view (Edwards and Skinner 2009). Also, outcomes of quantitative studies, if replicated sufficiently on different populations or groups, could be generalised more effectively (Saunders et al. 2016). In spite of these benefits, quantitative approaches may result in the production of knowledge that is too broad and therefore lacks applicability to a particular context (Smith 2010). As highlighted in previous chapters, this is commonly the case, for instance, in studies regarding organisational lifecycle models and sport organisations. On the other hand, a qualitative approach is more suitable for examination of dynamic processes as it allows the researcher to offer in-depth explanations regarding the reasons behind the occurrence of a particular phenomenon within a particular context (Saunders et al 2016). Other scholars also recommend this approach for multi-theoretical studies that are addressing a complex phenomenon (Edwards and Skinner 2009, Lee 1999, Smith 2010). By considering the main research questions and aims as well as the characteristics of each approach, this study adopts a qualitative approach.

### 3.3.2. Research strategy

According to Bansal and Corley (2011), although methodologies noticeably vary within qualitative studies, the rigour of the adopted methodology as well as the robustness of the theoretical contribution of the research should be accounted for in order to demonstrate the merit of the study. One of the key factors that underpins the rigour of the study is the research strategy that has been adopted to carry out the research. Research strategy is simply the plan which the researcher develops in order to answer the research questions (Saunders et al. 2016). In other words, it is the pathway that links the philosophy of the researcher to its subsequent research methods, which are essentially the methods used by the researcher to collect the data (Denzin and Lincoln 2011).

Saunders et al. (2016) note that unlike quantitative studies where decision-making regarding choice of research strategy is relatively more straightforward, selecting the appropriate strategy to conduct a qualitative study may be relatively more challenging simply because there is a broader range of options available to the researcher. Whilst quantitative studies mostly utilise experiments and surveys as their main strategy, both of which are also available to qualitative researchers, in qualitative studies the researcher may refer to a wider range of strategies including, and not limited to, narrative inquiry, grounded theory, action research, ethnography or case study (Saunders et al. 2016). Each of these strategies possesses its own characteristics thus selection of the appropriate strategy is significantly determined by the purpose of the research (Gratton and Jones 2010).

This research is substantially focusing on the meta-organisation theory, which is relatively recent. In the context of sport, it has not been utilised at all before, with the only exception of Malcourant, Vas and Zintz (2015). Gratton and Jones (2010) assert that in such circumstances and when the aim of the study is to clarify and develop the understanding about a particular issue or phenomenon, the research falls under the category of exploratory studies. Moreover, Saunders et al. (2016) also highlight the attributes of explanatory studies, as part of which *How* and *Why* questions are addressed in order to deliver an explanation regarding the occurrence of a particular phenomenon. Therefore, it can be maintained that the study has attributes pertaining to both of these research purposes. Scholars have advised that in such circumstances, a research strategy such as a case study that allows for going in-depth about a particular phenomenon is suitable (Eisenhardt 1989b, Saunders et al. 2016, Smith 2010). As a result, the strategy that is adopted for this research is the case study. A case study research strategy focuses on obtaining an in-depth understanding of the dynamics present within a single setting (Eisenhardt 1989b). Smith (2010:157) highlights the main applications of a case study research:

*Table 10- Main characteristics of case-study research, adapted from (Smith 2010)*

Key attributes of case study research	Examples of case study attributes in the context of the research
The explanation of complex links in real-life settings	Links between international stakeholders in sport such as international federations, GAISF, and the IOC
The description of real-life contexts in which events occur	The context of international sport governance
The description of events themselves	Events of SportAccord International Convention 2015 and the developments beyond
The exploration of situations in which events create no clear outcomes or consequence	The organisational changes that GAISF underwent and the behaviour of its members following

These attributes demonstrate applicability in addressing the gaps raised in the theoretical discussions and the review of literature in previous chapters. Edwards and Skinner (2009) warn that case studies may be difficult to conduct effectively and also, they may lack external validity. This is because a case study strategy is fundamentally a bottom-up approach during the process of which minor details will have an impact on the final theory formulated (Eisenhardt 1989b, Yin 2014). In spite of these, case studies allow the researcher to go in-depth within particular settings therefore recommendations of a case study research are at least empirically valid (Eisenhardt 1989b, Saunders et al. 2016). Also, a case study approach has been suggested in situations where particular phenomenon are under-researched and current perspectives on it are either not sufficiently developed due to inadequate empirical substantiation or they are conflicting, whether with each other or simply with common sense (Eisenhardt 1989b).

In this case study research, the case study organisation is GAIFS but not simply this meta-organisation on its own, as its members also are included in the study. Yin (2014) distinguishes between a single case study and multiple case studies, as well as holistic cases and embedded cases. The study focuses on one organisation only hence it is a single case study. Yin (2014) refers to the unit of analysis to separate holistic and embedded cases, where a holistic case considers the organisation under study as a whole whilst an embedded case considers not only the organisation, but also its logical sub-units. Since GAIFS members are theoretically part of the meta-organisation, they can be considered logical sub-units of this organisation. As a result, it can be concluded that the study examines a single embedded case.

### 3.3.3. Time horizon

The next important consideration that should be clarified is the time horizon of the study. In a cross-sectional study, the phenomenon under study is examined at a snapshot whereas in longitudinal studies the phenomenon is researched over a period of time (Saunders et al. 2016). This study aims to examine a processual phenomenon and the evolutionary development of an organisation across the multiple stages of its organisational lifecycle, from its emergence and creation until now, which is shortly after it reached a stage that D'ahunno and Zuckerman (1987) refer to as critical crossroads. Therefore, in order to be reflective of the purpose of the study

data is collected longitudinally as cross-sectional data will simply not be able to address the research questions appropriately.

#### 3.3.4. Research design

According to Pettigrew (1990), theoretically sound and practically useful research on organisations and how they evolve overtime should pay particular attention to the contexts, content, and process of change as well as the interconnections amongst the web of social actors in the internal and external environment through time. As Pettigrew (1979: 570) notes, “the longitudinal-processual approach to the study of organisations recognises that an organisation or any other social system may profitably be explored as a continuing system with a past, a present, and a future. Sound theory must, therefore, take into account the history and the future of a system and relate them to the present.” This not only supports the decision to conduct a longitudinal study, but also explains the reason why the research incorporates the concept of organisational lifecycle as a tool to inform the study.

The data collection of this research is informed by the design that Pettigrew (1979) laid out, which so far has been referred to by numerous scholars including those in sport management research (e.g. Aldrich 1999, Coyler 2000, Hamel 1991, Hoye et al. 2015, Maitland, Hills and Rhind 2015, Newman and Noble 1990, Girginov, Papadimitriou and López De D'Amico 2006, Slack and Hinnings 1992, Slack and Parent 2006, Smircich 1983, Smith and Shilbury 2004). Case study strategy is common amongst these works (e.g. Newman and Noble 1990), also a longitudinal time horizon is emphasised on. Although the focus of most of this body of research has been on organisational culture, scholars have adopted this design to study the evolution of organisations over time (e.g. Aldrich 1990). Hence this design has been identified as suitable for the purpose of the study.

In the Pettigrew (1979) model, the overall design of the research is anchored around the study of a set of social dramas, which essentially are influential points in time where major organisational developments are conditioned. The purpose of examining a sequence of social dramas longitudinally is that they offer a transparent overview at the growth, evolution, transformation, and, conceivably in certain cases, decline of an organisation over time. Pettigrew (1979) highlights that this research design provides clear points of data collection whilst each drama can act as an in-depth case study within the overall case study and therefore deliver a dramatic indication into the present workings of the social system. The longitudinal

study of a sequence of dramas enables the researcher to conduct various readings regarding the development of the organisation. Also, it helps to evaluate how each drama can be interpreted and also to assess the impact of each drama on successive and even consequent dramas.

This allows for gaining a better understanding regarding the mechanisms that lead to, accentuate, and regulate the impact of each drama. Moreover, this design gives the researcher the opportunity to study continuous processes and obtain a more detailed understanding of how the organisation initially emerges and how its purpose, commitment and order, which essentially form its organisational culture, develop overtime.

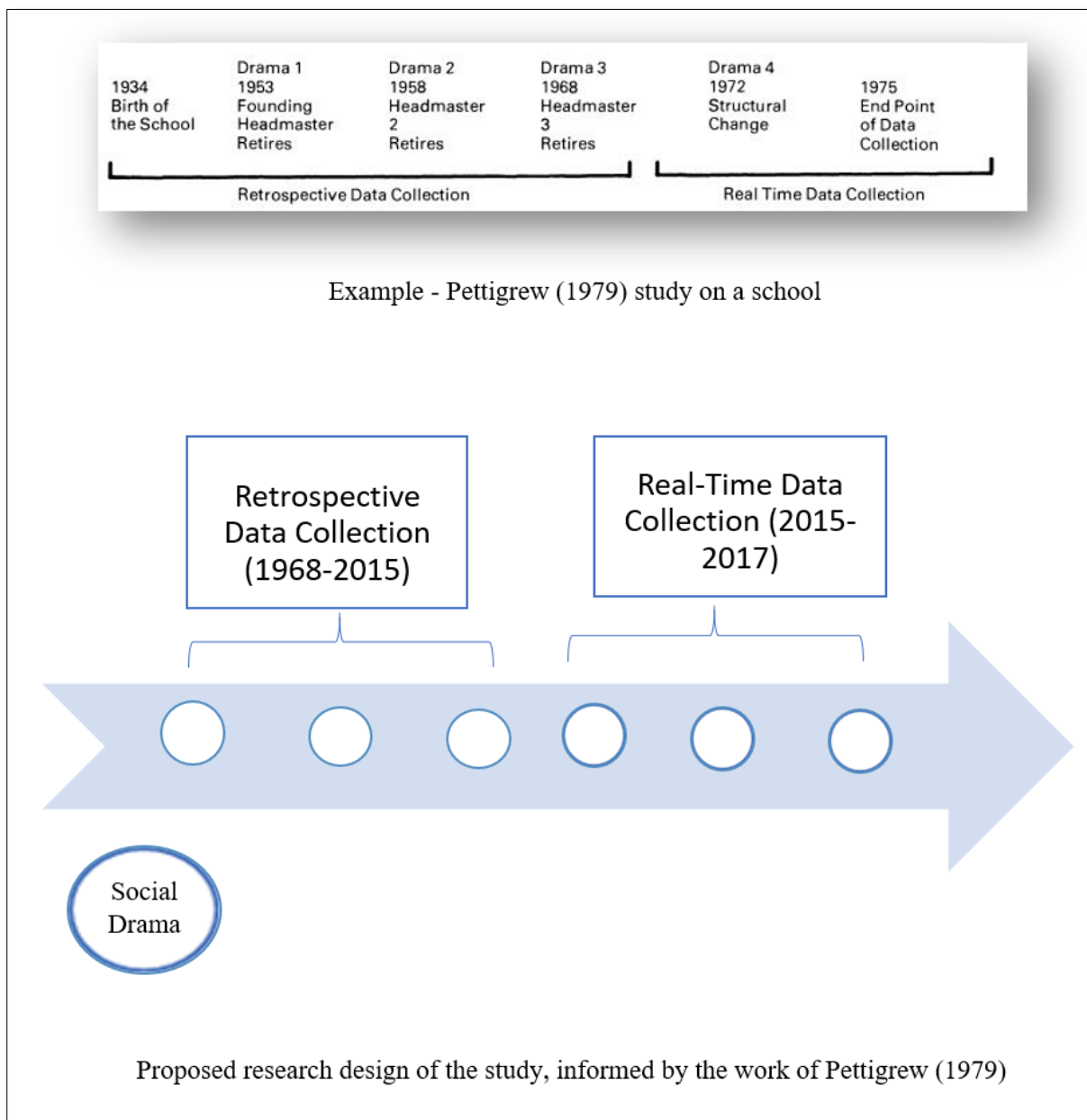


Figure 16 – Outlook of the research design, adapted from Pettigrew (1979)

As demonstrated in the above example, this design has two separate data collection phases. One stage addresses the retrospective data collection whilst the other phase focuses on data collection relating to the present time. The above illustrates this model, where each circle represents a drama point. In the study conducted by Pettigrew (1979), where the case study organisation was a school, retrospective data collection covered the period from 1934, which was the year when the school was created as an organisation, until 1968 where the third headmaster of the school passes away. This incident, as well as the retirement of the first and second headmasters, were considered as drama points. The real-time data collection phase covered a 3-year period (1972-1975), where major structural changes occurred in the organisation under study. In the case of this research, retrospective data collection covers from 1921, when a network of IFs was formed until 2015 when Maruis Vizer resigned. The real-time data collection period starts from 2015, when the research started until 2017, following the election of a new president.

### 3.4. Data collection

As far as data collection is concerned, both primary and secondary data were collected. Primary data was collected via semi-structured interviews as well as open-ended questionnaires. Secondary data was collected from books, journal articles, archives of press releases as well as historical archived data. Such an approach places the research under the category of multi-method qualitative studies (Saunders et al. 2016). This is because the study uses multiple methods of data collection, as opposed to mono method studies where a single method is applied. In business and management research, multi-method studies have been recommended because not only do they overcome the flaws associated with mono-method studies, such as validity and reliability, they also provide the researcher with a broader scope for collecting more insightful data, conducting a more meaningful analysis and delivering an informed interpretation (Bryman 2006). Primary data analysis mostly relies on thematic analysis whilst secondary data is mainly analysed by document analysis. The reasons behind the selection of the above data collection and data analysis methods are delivered in this section. Also, an in-depth discussion regarding the ‘process’ of data collection, sampling, data analysis, how the selected methods were practically implemented as well as measures taken to ensure validity and reliability is provided.

It is important to stress that this study adopts a multi-method, and not a ‘mixed-method’, data collection approach since all the utilised methods focus on collecting qualitative data. Mixed-method studies combine quantitative and qualitative approaches, entail different research designs and more importantly stem from different philosophical paradigms. As Saunders et al. (2016) note, critical realists or pragmatist tend to be more inclined towards mixed-methods research design. This is arguably due to their ontological and epistemological beliefs, where their ontology is closer to realism, yet their epistemology is closer to interpretivism (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2010). As explained in section 3.3, the underlying ontology of this research is linked to subjectivism and maintains that although realities are external, they are not necessarily objective, therefore the research does not use a mixed-method strategy.

#### 3.4.1. Primary data collection methods

It is necessary to collect primary data when existing information that is readily available does not sufficiently answer the questions the researcher is addressing (Smith 2010). The main method for collecting primary data in this research is interviewing. ‘Research interview is purposeful conversation between two or more people, requiring the interviewer to establish rapport and ask concise and unambiguous questions, to which the interviewee is willing to respond and to listen attentively’ (Saunders et al. 2016: 338).

Within qualitative organisational literature, interviewing is one of the most commonly used methods to collect primary data (Cassell 2009, King 2004a, Lee 1999). This is not to suggest that interviewing is the only method for collecting primary data in a qualitative study, as other methods such as ethnography or focus groups are also widely used (Saunders et al. 2016). However, one has to consider the context and main questions of the research before deciding on the data collection methods. Multiple interpretations of social life are better understood when considering that such realities are multiple and exist in the minds of people (Cassell 2009). Amis (2005) states that the most logical method of accessing those realities that are in people’s mind is talk to people. He notes using interviews as a primary method for his own work, particularly when addressing topics such as organisational conflicts. Interviews can help the researcher to obtain more information about the irregularities, paradoxes and contradictions that are commonplace in the realities of social world because it allows for detailed exploration of a particular issue in way which is not possible with other methods of data collection (Smith 2010). This is particularly applicable in case-study organisational research that focuses on organisational dynamics from a variety of angles (Lee 1999).

In the case of this research and the organisation of GAISF, senior decision makers of GAISF and its members, which are mostly international federations, are interviewed. The interviewees include Presidents, Secretary Generals, Vice-Presidents or Managing Directors of international sport federations. Considering that they are the key decision makers of their respective organisation and hold a leadership position, they can be considered as the most appropriate sources to express the strategic position of their organisation in relation to the meta-organisations they are a member of and discuss how they interact, and also manage their relationship, with those meta-organisations.

In order to get fresh and unique insights regarding the creation of GAISF and the developments that occurred at that time, it is necessary to consult a source of information that was personally involved with GAISF and the wider Olympic Movement in an influential capacity. Considering that GAISF was founded over 50 years ago, the total list of individuals that were involved with the emergence of this meta-organisation and who also are accessible today is not very long. Some of the former presidents of GAISF, such as Thomas Keller who served between 1969 and 1986, have already passed away. However, an interview was arranged with another senior sport executive who currently is a president of an international federation, and previously was thoroughly involved with the early years of GAISF. He also worked extensively with the IOC as well as FIFA, architecting their revenue generation models and commercial strategies.

It is important to also note why other methods of data collection were not appropriate for the purpose of this study. Considering these elements and the aims of the research, it is evidently not possible to collect the required data via observations. Also, by considering matters such as privacy, political sensitivity and anonymity pertaining to the participants, it can be understood that a collective method such as a focus group is not appropriate. In addition, it is simply impractical to gather senior directors of organisations that are headquartered around the globe.



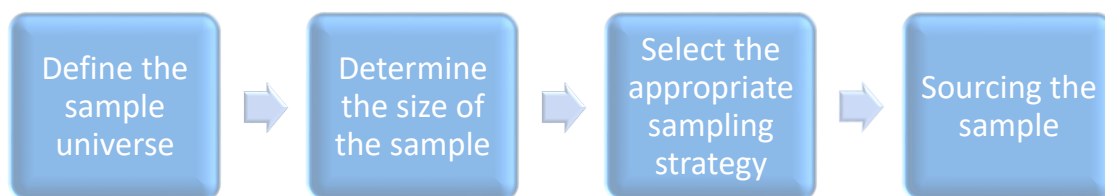
The interviews were semi-structured, as a part of which a set of questions that cover a range of pre-determined themes are presented. However, as opposed to structured and closed interviews, the order of questions was flexible, and the flow of questions was determined with respect to how the interview was progressing. This method ensures that the necessary themes are covered but also allowed the interviewee to present new ideas or themes that might not have been listed in the prepared set of discussion points (Amis 2005). Unstructured interviews tend to lack formality (Saunders et al. 2016). Participants such as presidents of international federations expect an overview of what the interview may involve. Also, unstructured interviews may result in collection of an excessively broad range of data which may lack relevance to the research questions, as such they are utilised more in studies that adopt a grounded theory approach (Lee 1999). Therefore, the study opted for semi-structured interviews.

No data collection method is perfect hence the drawbacks of interviews should be mentioned. As Gratton and Jones (2010) state, the costs and resources required to conduct interviews are acknowledged. Thus, in order to complement these interviews, open-ended questionnaires were also designed and sent to international federations that were selected to participate in the study, but it was not possible to hold a face-to-face interview with them. This may be due to the fact that they were not geographically accessible, or they expressed that they would like to take part in the study however due their schedules and commitments, it was not possible to set a time for an interview in person or online. An open-ended questionnaire enables the scope of the study to expand and reach federations that are not accessible in person, and also provides the participants with the opportunity to respond to the questions in their own time (Saunders et al. 2016). Although questions were designed in a fashion so they are to be unbiasedly understood, it has to be noted that respondents may misinterpret a particular question whilst not having the chance to ask the researcher instantly for clarification. Also, follow up elaborations on interesting responses to certain questions is not possible with questionnaires, as opposed to in person interviews (Saunders et al. 2016).

Nevertheless, enhancing the validity, credibility and reliability of the results could be achieved by triangulation, which is obtaining data from a variety of sources and methods (Edwards and Skinner 2009). Tenenbaum and Driscoll (2005) maintain that by synthesising different sources of data, theories and methods blind spots inherent in singular approaches of research could be reconciled and further validity could be added to the results of the study. Secondary sources and open-ended questionnaires were used as means of triangulation. This practice is also demonstrated in other notable case study works in which interviews, questionnaires and archived data were utilised in combination (Eisenhardt 1989b). This supports the decision of the study to utilise opened-ended questionnaires, as well as secondary data.

#### 3.4.1.1. Interview sampling

One of the chief components of the interview process is sampling (Robinson 2014). Sampling is concerned with identifying individuals or organisations relevant to the study and determining the scope of data collection (Saunders et al. 2016). This study followed the sampling guidelines of Robinson (2014) since it offers a timely recipe that is specific for qualitative studies. Even though it has been published in a psychology related journal, it has been a point of reference for scholars from multiple disciplines including sport studies (e.g. Cook and Fletcher 2017).



*Figure 17 – Sampling framework, adapted from Robinson (2014)*

#### 3.4.1.2. Sample universe

The first step of the 4-point sampling process of Robinson (2014) is defining the sample universe, which is the entirety of the individuals or organisations that can be interviewed. Considering the research strategy of this study, the most appropriate organisations for this study were the case-study organisation itself alongside its logical subunits, meaning GAISF and its members. Therefore, GAISF membership was the central inclusion criterion. To hold an organisation relevant to the study, the organisation had to be an international sport association that is either already member of GAISF, whether full member or associate member, or has already made an application to join GAISF, and where possible has been granted observer status.

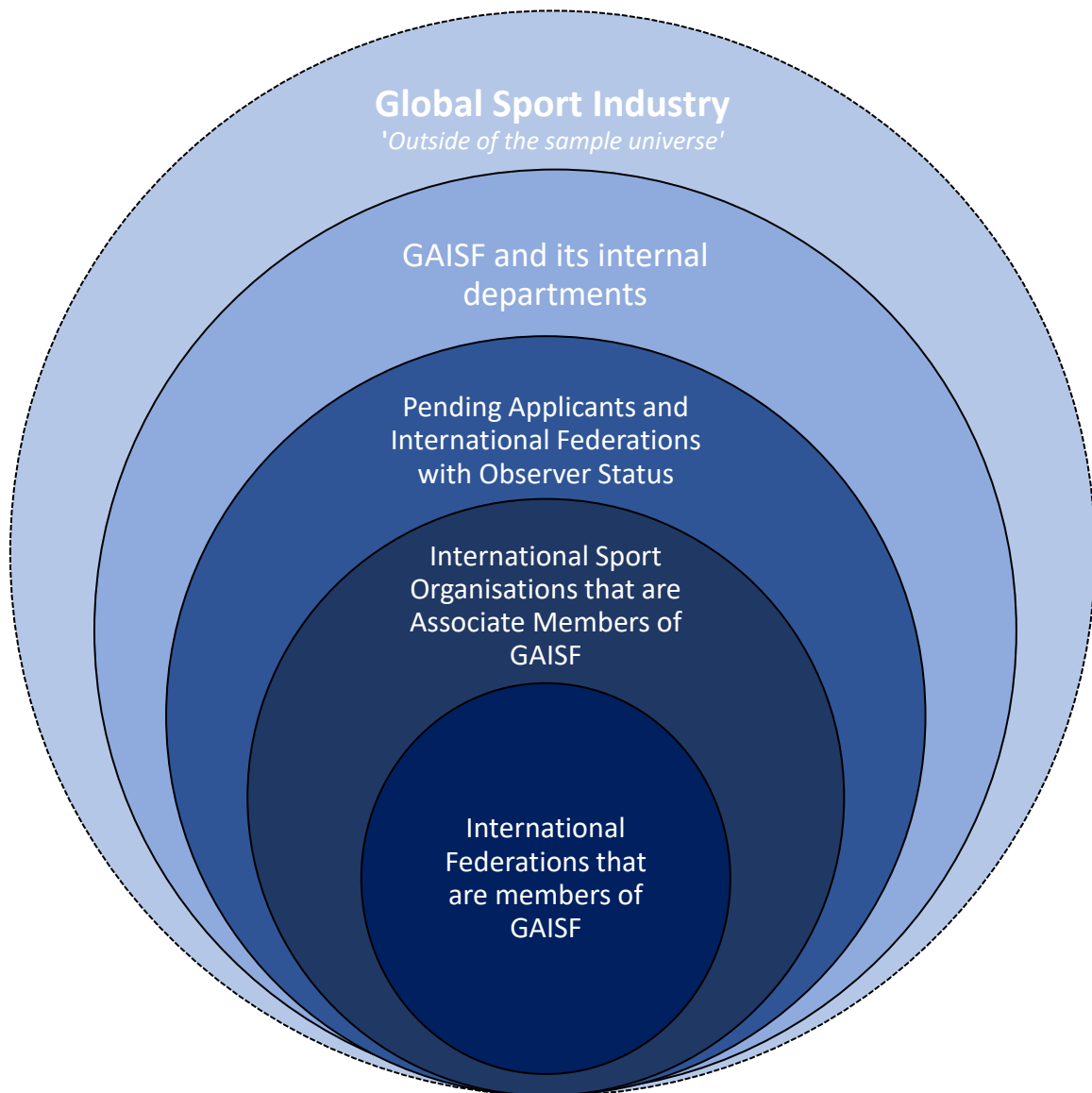


Figure 18 – Sampling universe

The units of analysis were the organisations not the interviewed persons. Nonetheless, a criterion was needed to determine who should be interviewed from each organisation. As explained in the previous chapter, to obtain the richest data only the most senior figures in the organisation were targeted. Therefore, a list of senior job titles was drafted and only persons in these roles were considered for the study. Roles such as President and Secretary General are prevalent amongst international sport federations. In recent years, however, due to increased professionalisation and commercialisation of international federations, firm-like organisational designs have become commonplace as well. As a result, job titles such as CEO or Managing Director are frequently used in their senior roles. The roles of the CEO, or the Managing Director, have similar functions to the role of Secretary General, which is to oversee the day to day operation of the organisation whilst the President's role is more focused on strategic leadership. The table below showcases the inclusion criteria for interview subjects.

*Table 11 – Job-title: Criteria for Inclusion*

<b>President</b>	Managing Director	Chairman
<b>Secretary General</b>	CEO	Vice-President

Although setting the boundaries for the sample universe of this study may appear to be a straightforward task, it is essential to clearly define it because not only it enhances the practicality of the study for the researcher, but also visibly clarifies important elements of the research such as the extent of generalisability and transferability. This is particularly important because the sample universe of the research ultimately reflects on the extent which the study's findings can be rationally and logically applied to similar phenomena (Mason 1996, Robinson 2014). Meta-organisations have multiple members, and each member has its own set of inter-organisational relationships. Therefore, the meta-organisation can be effectively seen as a formally, and often administratively, distinguished organisational space which is engulfed by a web of inter-organisational relationships. As a result, when studying meta-organisations it would be possible to notice the role of organisations that are outside of the universe. Given the interconnection that naturally exists between various organisations in the field, it is not possible to ignore the impact of non-members on the trajectory path of the meta-organisation, if they have had any. It should be noted that this issue is very much related to the aim and objectives of the research. If one was to examine internal processes of a particular meta-organisation, it would potentially be possible to strictly keep the focus on the meta-organisation itself.

#### 3.4.1.3. Sample size

Determining the sample size is one of the main challenges that researchers face when collecting data for a qualitative study (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). As opposed to quantitative studies where sampling is informed by established scientific methods, in qualitative studies although commonly practiced techniques exist, there is no standardised method for researchers to determine the appropriate sample size (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). Subsequently, it is not possible to precisely determine the sufficient number of interviews required for a qualitative study (Robinson 2014).

There are guidelines, however, that can be followed in order to estimate the appropriate sample size in relation to the context of the research (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016, Mason 2010). Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) maintain that in qualitative research 15 interviews is the minimum requirement. Others argue that in most qualitative studies it becomes difficult to find any new and useful information after 20 interviews (Green and Thorogood 2018). However, as Mason (2010) highlights, the research strategy significantly shapes the data collection procedure and subsequently affects the number of interviews required. Solely stated as guidelines by various scholars (Charmaz 2006, Creswell 1998, Morse 1994), it has been suggested that research strategies such as ethnography or grounded theory require relatively more interviews, approximately between the range of 30 and 50 or 60, whilst phenomenological inquiries and case-studies are usually carried out with 5 to 25 interviews. More specific to qualitative case-studies, which is the research strategy of this study, Baškarada (2014) states that in general conducting less than 15 interviews is considered insufficient.

Unlike quantitative studies where there is usually a positive correlation between size of the sample and the validity of the results, in qualitative studies after a certain point collecting more data would not necessarily yield further benefits. This is mainly because further data collection would not reveal any new information and may simply cause an overflow of data, leading to superfluous findings (Mason 2010). This issue is mostly referred to reaching saturation, and qualitative scholars are advised to stop collecting new data once they reach the point of saturation (Mason 2010). Nevertheless, it has been argued that although the concept of saturation has applicability across most qualitative studies, it is predominantly an element of grounded theory research strategy (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). In the case of other qualitative research strategies, the concept of saturation is often inconsistently applied and

sometimes it is not clear how exactly saturation was reached (O'Reilly and Parker 2013). Given that this study does not follow a grounded theory strategy, more attention was paid to the concept of information power, which despite its differences with the concept of saturation, shares common traits with existing concepts regarding qualitative methodologies. Developed by Malterud, Siersma and Guassora (2016), the concept of information power states that the more information the sample holds, relevant to the actual study, the lower the number of participants that are needed.

As suggested by the concept of information power, as well as by other guidelines offered by qualitative scholars, the number of interviews in qualitative research is dependent on several factors including, and not limited to, aims and scope of the research, specificity of the sample, usage of established theory, quality of dialogue, the context of the study, practicality and the method of data collection, the size of units of analysis and the available timeframe (Baškarada 2014, Mason 2010, Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). Studies that have narrow and specific objectives may require a lower number of interviews compared to grand projects with broad aims (Charmaz 2006, Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). The scope of this study is narrow, since it mainly focuses on a case-study in order to add to the theory of meta-organisations in the context of sports. Furthermore, interviewing experts and establishing high quality dialogue with individuals that are of the highest rank and most reliable knowledge on the topic can reduce the number of interviews required (Malterud, Siersma and Guassora 2016). As mentioned previously, in this study the most senior decision makers from each organisation were interviewed. Also, it has been argued that studies that are longitudinal and adopt a multi-method approach, as opposed to mono-method, of data collection tend to require fewer participants (Lee, Lee and Rho 2002). This study has a longitudinal time-horizon and collects both primary and secondary data via multiple methods. Moreover, the heterogeneity of subjects is an important element (Mason 2010). In other words, the more the subjects in the sample universe are homogenous, the fewer interviews may be required. In this single embedded case-study, only international sport associations were interviewed thus there was a certain degree of homogeneity amongst interviewed organisations.

Similar to most other qualitative studies, in this research it was not possible to determine a precise number of interviews to conduct prior to the start of data collection. Malterud, Siersma and Guassora (2016) and Robinson (2014) recommend that it is beneficial to initially estimate a provisional sample size whilst in the planning phase of the research in order to facilitate the commencement of data collection. However, based on the theoretical and practical

implications that emerge throughout the research, this estimate needs to be appraised and evaluated continuously throughout data collection (Guest, Bunce and Johnson 2006, Morse 1995, Robinson 2014, Sandelowski 1995).

Considering the points discussed above, it was decided to ideally conduct up to 25 interviews, and at least a minimum of 15 interviews. These thresholds were later revised, however, and the total number of research participants was set at 20. Given the challenges related to data collection, it was not possible to interview all of those research participants. Hence 17 participants were interviewed, and 3 participants took part in the study via an open-ended questionnaire. This approach ensured that the minimum number of interviews that was initially set (i.e. 15) was met.

A careful approximation would suggest that the total number of organisations inside the sample universe (as explained in section 3.4.1.3) may be close to 120. Due to several reasons it was not possible to interview more than 20% of these organisations. Firstly, this research was mainly based in the United Kingdom, where only few international federations are located. Most international federations are based in Switzerland, with many others scattered around the world. Therefore, logistical considerations and other issues such as different time-zones, particularly in the case of distant interviews, were major obstacles. Secondly, there was also the issue of lack of interest or willingness from certain participants. Although this study is purely an academic research that aims to contribute to literature, it examines topics that have direct or indirect links to matters related to governance issues and organisational politics. Therefore, from the perspective of an industry practitioner there was an element of sensitivity. This was an anticipated issue prior to the start of the data collection hence it was not realistic to expect all eligible organisations to be interested in taking part in the study. Furthermore, given the available time and resources, it would not have been possible to conduct, record and transcribe a substantially greater number of interviews and analyse the emergent data (Mason 2010). Thus, rather than interviewing a large number of organisations briefly, it was aimed to conduct in-depth interviews with an adequate number of organisations from the sample universe whilst ensuring diversity amongst various subgroups of federations. The strategy behind selection of participants is explained in the next section.

#### 3.4.1.4. Sampling strategy

Sampling strategy refers to the rationale behind the process of selecting cases from the sample universe for interviewing (Robinson 2014). The sampling process played a role in the data collection procedure across two stages. Random sampling, also known as convenience sampling, and purposive sampling are the two main streams of sampling strategies that researchers use to select cases for interviewing (Robinson 2014). Random sampling relies on the proximity and willingness of participants; hence it entails locating convenient cases within the sample universe. Participants are recruited on a first-come-first-served basis until the sample size quotient is full (Robinson 2014). Although such approach provides flexibility, it was not used. This was because adopting a pure convenient sampling strategy may result in unwarranted generalisations (Robinson 2014). Senior leaders of larger international federations with busier schedules are expected to be relatively less accessible. Also, due to the relatively more sensitive status of their organisation, they may be less interested in participating in the study. Therefore, if the study applied a convenient sampling strategy across both stages, there could have been a risk of interviewing only a certain group of international federations, potentially those with more flexible schedules such as non-Olympic or non-IOC recognised federations.

As far as purposive sampling strategies are concerned, they are non-random ways of selecting cases for interviewing that ensure the interviewed cases are reflective of the sample universe (Robinson 2014). Depending on whether the case-study involves a single case or multiple cases, the type of sampling strategies would differ. The figure below, adapted from Robinson (2014), summarises these strategies. It must be noted that the typology above is not exhaustive and there may be other sampling strategies. Also, although from a methodological perspective the research strategy of this study is a single case-study, multiple organisations were interviewed because this study examined an embedded case, not a holistic case. Therefore, sampling strategies that are applicable to a single case were not considered. After reviewing the characteristics of each strategy relevant for multiple cases, quota sampling strategy was identified as the appropriate approach for this study.



Type of case-study	Sampling Strategies	
Single Case	<i>Significant Case Sampling</i>	<i>Intensity Sampling</i>
	<i>Deviant Case Sampling</i>	<i>Extreme Case Sampling</i>
	<i>Typical Case Sampling</i>	
Multiple Case	Stratified Sampling	Cell Sampling
	Quota Sampling	Theoretical Sampling

Table 12- Sampling strategies, adapted from Robinson (2014)

As Robinson (2014) explains, theoretical sampling is a popular sampling strategy in qualitative studies however it does not have applicability to this research. This strategy involves categorisation and selection of cases during data collection, a process that is informed by emergent data and initial findings. Such an approach is more suitable for research strategies such as grounded theory as it does not use any form of a priori criteria (Robinson 2014). Since this study uses a case-study strategy and not grounded theory, theoretical sampling was not considered.

Stratified sampling entails the selection of groups or cases which, according to the judgement of the researcher, should be included in the final sample. The sample is then split, or as the name suggest stratified, into a number of categories based on a variety of criteria (e.g. organisation' size, age, location etc.). Cell sampling is also similar to stratified sampling in the sense that it applies certain criteria to create “cells” of cases to later choose from. However, as opposed to discrete and non-overlapping categories of stratified sampling, cell sampling categories may intersect. Nevertheless, both strategies call for interviewing a fixed number of cases within each category. Given the uncertainties and external factors that undermine the recruitment process for interviews, it was not realistic to follow these strategies.

However, to add flexibility to the sampling process, quota sampling strategy was selected. In quota sampling, it is required to recruit a minimum, not fixed, number of cases from each category to ensure that all categories are represented in the final sample. Subject organisations were categorised based on the type of GASIF membership and degree of recognition by the IOC. This categorisation empowered the sampling process by ensuring that each subgroup of federations is reflected in the final sample. The figures below demonstrate the categories of cases as well as the quota for each category.

Table 13 – Summary of interview breakdown

Category	Quota	Olympic Programme	Olympic Recognition	GAISF Membership	Number of interviews	Open-ended Questionnaire
GAISF	1	N/A	N/A	N/A	2	-
ASOIF Members	3	✓	✓	✓	3	-
AIOWF Members	1	✓	✓	✓	1	-
ARISF Members	4	✓	✓	✓	4	1
AIMS Members	4	✓	✓	✓	4	1
Associate Members	1	N/A	N/A	✓	1	1
Non-Members	1	x	x	x	2	-

#### 3.4.1.5. Sourcing the sample

After establishing the sample universe, the size of the sample and the appropriate sampling strategy, the next and final phase was to source the participants. A list of suitable individuals was drafted in relation to the quotas in the sample and their contact details were obtained. In some cases, the contact details of the subjects were available via the website of their organisation. In other cases, contact details were sourced using the researcher's personal network of industry contacts. Professional social media platforms (e.g. LinkedIn) were also utilised to help this process. All selected individuals were contacted first via email. Emails were only sent from a Coventry University email account and were sent to business email accounts of participants. Where necessary, follow up communications were carried out via telephone. Access to certain subjects had to be organised with a personal assistant or a secretary. Where digital points of contact could not be established, proposals were posted to subjects.

In each communication the researcher and the affiliated educational institution (i.e. Coventry University) were introduced and the purpose of the study was clearly explained. Supplementary information labelled as "Participants Information Sheet" was provided as well to further familiarise participants with the aims of the research. Those who responded by stating they did not wish to participate in the study were sent a courtesy email to acknowledge their decision

and their consideration was appreciated. The respondents willing to participate in the study were sent further communications to arrange a date, time and location for the interview.

Throughout this process, ethical issues were firmly considered as well. All participants were given an “Informed Consent” form in advance of the interview. It was ensured that all participants have had read and signed the form prior to the commencement of the interview. This process was repeated until all sampling quotas were met.

#### 3.4.1.6. Primary data management

All interviews were recorded via a smartphone using a voice recording application. The access to the content of the smartphone was secured with measures such as PIN code. Following each interview, the audio file of the interview was transferred into a personal cloud drive stored on the network of Coventry University, which is secure and protected. The audio files were listened to and the conversation was transcribed into a word processing document. At the end of transcribing of each interview, the audio file was replayed, and the transcribed text was double checked against the audio file. This was to ensure that the conversation was accurately transcribed. Certain participants requested to be sent a copy of the transcript of their interview before the text was analysed. In those cases, a proofread copy of the transcript was emailed to the participant and confirmation of approval was obtained. Considering that the interviews were semi-structured, there were moments where the conversation deviated from the main topic of the interview. Although all interviews were transcribed in their entirety, irrelevant parts of the transcript were omitted from the data set. This measure was taken to increase productivity and efficiency in the data analysis procedure and reduce the negative effects of data overload.

As explained previously, semi-structured interviews were accompanied with open-ended questionnaires. The questionnaire was designed using Qualtrics, an online platform that provides surveying solutions. Qualtrics was the main surveying software that Coventry University could provide access to; hence it was used for creation and distribution of the questionnaire. A supplementary guide was designed and sent to participants alongside the digital link to the questionnaire. The guide provided basic information about the structure of the questionnaire, number of questions and how to complete it. Furthermore, the very first section of the questionnaire was designed as the informed consent form in order to ensure that each participant provides consent to participation before completing the questionnaire. The questions were designed in a similar format to the structure of the questions in the interviews, all with an open text box for participants to write their answers. No limit on word count was

imposed. Once a questionnaire was completed, the results were downloaded in the form of a PDF file and stored on the same cloud drive as the audio files of the interviews.

### 3.4.2. Secondary data collection

Secondary data can help to add further validity and reliability to findings, verify existing claims and make comparisons with other sources of data (Saunders et al. 2016, Perakyla 2004). This is reflected in the note that in management and organisational studies a significant portion of research and theory has been based on retrospective data (Miller, Cardinal and Glick 1997). Although utilising secondary data in social sciences has become a common practice, secondary sources of data are still left unexplored at times (Corti and Thompson 2006). Qualitative secondary data can shed further light upon contemporary and historical attitudes and the behaviour of individuals and organisations, a note that relates to the aim of this study (Corti and Thompson 2006). Also, for research projects that adopt a longitudinal approach, it is always useful and sometime necessary to use secondary data (Saunders et al. 2016). Secondary data not only can result in the discovery of unforeseen insights, but also it can allow the researcher to deliver a comparative and contextual appraisal of the primary data collection against the secondary data in order to evaluate the data collection process (Arber, Dale and Proctor 1988). As a result, the study utilised a notable amount of secondary data.

In this research, secondary data is obtained from sources such as books regarding sport history. Also, archived data stored in Olympic Study Centre's library were accessed in order to retrieve further relevant data relating to communications between various major stakeholders including the IOC, its executive board and the international federations. This set of data relates to the duration covered by the retrospective data collection phase of the study. This helps to triangulate the primary interview collected in that regard. Also, organisational documents including organisational statutes are referred to, in order to identify the original purposes regarding the creation of organisations such as GAISF, and also better understand their policies.

Furthermore, press archives of media outlets such as Inside The Games provide an in-depth coverage of the organisational developments within international sport organisations such as the IOC and international federations. The author of the thesis has personal work experience in the sport business industry, particularly in the sport business media sector. Based on that experience, it has been determined that Inside The Games is one of the few, if not the only, media outlet that provides insightful coverage of important developments as well as events related to international governing bodies, their annual meetings and GAISF congresses. General mainstream media outlets simply do not cover this sector in-depth, whilst other sport business media outlets, such as SportsPro, Sport Business International or SportCal have their main coverage on the commercial aspects of the sport industry. Therefore, the press archives are extracted primarily from inside the games. Nevertheless, the other aforementioned sport business media outlets are referred to in the study, given that they still hold relevant data available in textual format, such as exclusive interviews, or audio-visual format such as conference videos or podcasts.

As Miller, Cardinal and Glick (1997) argue, as long as the retrospective data were produced in a reliable and valid manner, they can be a viable part of a research methodology. Nevertheless, secondary sources of data have a number of disadvantages that should be acknowledged. Denscombe (2007) warns that a set of secondary data that is utilised for a research project, may have been originally collected for a different purpose and under a different framework. Furthermore, researchers may either mistakenly or opportunistically misinterpret the secondary data (Corti and Thompson 2006). Thus, the data may not be entirely appropriate for the purpose of the research, or the amount of data may be overwhelming, and a notable amount of time has to be spent to identify the relevant sections of data. Furthermore, access may be difficult or costly (Saunders et al. 2016). In the case of this study, in order to access archives of historical documents containing communications between IOC executive board and international federations, a trip needed to be organised to Switzerland since this data is not available digitally and can be only accessed in person by prior appointment. Also, in order to identify relevant data from this archived data set a considerable amount of time was spent to search through over 200 documents, where in some cases one single document contained hundreds of pages. Certain documents were not recorded in English hence a noteworthy amount of time was spent to filter those documents out.

Despite the challenges that are inherent in usage of secondary data, the obtained secondary data was materially useful for this study and helped to answer the research questions. As Bowen (2009) also notes, information contained in the obtained documents helped to identify important issues that informed the questions during interviews. Moreover, the documents provided useful insights in order to track important changes and developments over time. Nonetheless, it is acknowledged that access and analysis of such data was resource consuming. As part of a triangulation strategy, secondary sources of data, illustrated in the figure below, were utilised to complement the primary data. This section provides details about how these sources were accessed and how relevant data was acquired from them.



*Figure 19 – Secondary data sources*

### 3.4.2.1. Archival data

The Olympic Studies Centre, located in Lausanne, Switzerland is a useful source of information for research related to organisational components of the Olympic Movement, including the international federations. The centre provides a wide range of resources including a historical archive. One of the main parts of the historical archives is related to reports and the meeting minutes of IOC decision-making organs. These include minutes of IOC sessions, IOC executive board meetings, IOC meetings with National Olympic Committees, IOC meetings with international federations as well as other IOC commissions and working groups.

Given the available time and resources as well as the aims of the research, it was not possible nor useful to review the historical archives entirely. However, it was ensured that the most relevant sources that directly concern international federations and the process of creation and evolution of GAISF were selected. As a result, minutes of IOC sessions, minutes of IOC executive board meetings and the minutes of IOC executive board meetings with international federations were acquired from the centre. The figure below summarises the documents reviewed.

As far as gaining access to the archives is concerned, it is not possible to access these archives digitally. An appointment must be booked with an archivist at this facility before attending the centre as access to archives can only be provided in person. The necessary arrangements were made prior to travelling to Lausanne to ensure the relevant sources can be accessed. The archives were provided on an encrypted hard drive. The relevant information was selected and subsequently transferred into a personal encrypted hard drive. It is also important to highlight the policies regarding confidentiality of organisational information and the embargo that is in place on certain sources of information within the archives. For example, as stated in the figure below, the minutes of any IOC executive board meeting after 1986 is not provided in the archives. Furthermore, initially minutes of all meetings were only recorded in French. Considering the language barrier, it was not possible to review the minutes from the very beginning of their availability. Documents were reviewed from the point in time that minutes were also recorded in English

*Table 14- Summary data collected from the archives of Olympic Library*

Overview of Olympic Library Sources								
Document	Number of Available Items	Analysed Items	Items Not Analysed	% of Analysed Documents	Available Time Period		Analysed Time Period	
					From	To	From	To
IOC Executive Board Meetings with IFs	47	36	11	77%	1928	1986	1952	1986
IOC Executive Board Meetings	162	99	63	61%	1921	1986	1960	1986
IOC Sessions	128	86	42	67%	1894	2014	1952	2014
<b>TOTAL</b>	337	221	116	66%				

#### 3.4.2.2. Press archives

As explained in the methodology chapter, the archives of industry media outlet *insidethegames.biz* was reviewed and relevant articles were identified. The time period selected was from April 2015, following the 2015 SportAccord International Convention until April 2017 when new organisational changes including the appointment of a new president, a rebrand of the organisation and the approval of new statutes were all finalised. The archives of this outlet are searchable using key words. Also, each article has relevant tags attached to it. “SportAccord” and “Global Association of International Sports Federations” were the tags used to refine the news archives and identify the relevant articles. In total, 80 press articles were selected and reviewed.

#### 3.4.2.3. Organisational documents

Relevant sections of a number of organisational documents were also incorporated into the data analysis. These include organisational statutes of the case-study organisation GAISF as well as other related meta-organisations such as ASOIF, AIOWF, ARISF and AIMS. Comparisons of GAISF’s statutes with other aforementioned meta-organisations offered the opportunity to examine the differences and similarities related to a broad range of factors including organisational aims, objectives, services provided to members and membership criteria. These documents were accessed on the website of each respective organisation.

#### 3.4.2.4. Sport history books

There are not many journal articles or books that have particularly addressed creation, evolution and development of GAISF as an organisation. However, this has been partially examined by historical books that have made an account of the evolution of the Olympic Movement as a whole.

The book authored by Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008), titled “*The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic system: The governance of world sport*” contains relevant information regarding the evolution of international sport organisations since the birth of the Olympics in the modern era. Some of the chapters exclusively address international federations and the creation of various associations of international federations, including GAISF. It provides a historical context for the case-study organisation and was a beneficial source to refer to as a starting point. Therefore, it was used as part of data collection.



Furthermore, after reviewing several press articles about the history of GAISF, it was noted that a number of sport history books were frequently quoted by journalists. These books, all listed below, are similar to that of Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008) in the sense that they capture the historical evolution of the Olympic Movement as a whole. Nonetheless, they all contain relevant data in relation to the context of this research.

*Table 15- Sport history books as sources of secondary data*

<b>Authors and Year of Publication</b>	<b>Title of the Book</b>
Chappelet and Kübler-Mabbott (2008)	The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic system: The governance of world sport
Guttmann (1992)	The Olympics: A history of the Modern Games
Senn (1999)	Power, Politics and the Olympic Games: A history of the power brokers, events and controversies that shaped the Games
Miller (2003)	Athens to Athens: The Official History of the Olympic Games and the IOC, 1894-2004

#### 3.4.3.4. Podcasts

Shortly after the events of SportAccord International Convention 2015, several leading figures from various federations and umbrella groups (e.g. ASOIF, AIOWF etc.) expressed their views to the media. Most of those views were communicated to the public in written articles and they are captured in the data acquired from press archives.

However, some of those individuals appeared on sport business podcasts and discussed topics pertaining to the organisational developments within GAISF. One of them was Gian-Franco Kasper, president of International Ski Federation (FIS), president AIOWF and a member of the IOC. Following the resignation of Vizer from the presidency of GAISF, Kasper was selected as the interim Chairman. He was tasked with restoring order into GAISF, then known as SportAccord, following the exodus of international federations from the association. He discussed the process of restructuring GAISF during a podcast hosted by Sport Business International, one of the major sport business media outlets. The podcast was available in the format of an audio file on the website of Sport Business International. The audio file was transcribed into a word processing document, similar to the primarily conducted interviews and the text was included as part of the analysis.

### 3.5. Data analysis

Given the purpose and the underlying research methodology of this study, the data analysis follows an inductive approach. In other words, the study first collects the qualitative data and then explores it in order to identify any patterns or themes that can be concentrated on for further analysis. (Saunders et al. 2016). As part of this approach, the study does not commence with a clearly defined theoretical framework, rather the themes and patterns that emerge from the data help to construct the theoretical framework of the research and theories are derived from the collection, analysis and interpretation of data (Smith 2010).

According to Corbin and Strauss (2008), an inductive data analysis approach typically requires a substantial amount of time as at certain stages data collection and data analysis will have to be conducted in parallel. In spite of this challenge, this approach, compared to a deductive approach, enables the researcher to not be bound by existing theoretical constructs and allows for delivering contextualised results, which is beneficial for case studies (Edwards and Skinner 2009). It has been asserted that data collection, data analysis and data interpretation processes within qualitative studies are significantly interlinked (Saunders et al. 2016). Qualitative research naturally allows for identifying important themes and patterns as the data collection and data analysis is occurring. This aspect can subsequently shape the data collection and data analysis procedures for the remainder of the research (Corbin and Strauss 2008). This note was experienced in this research as well.

#### 3.5.1. Processual framework

The figure below, adapted from Pettigrew (1987), illustrates the guiding framework of processual analysis. It should be noted that processual analysis is a stream of analysis, as part of which processed data is fed into a framework that configures the interplay between context, actions and time (Pettigrew 1997). In other words, processual analysis is not a downstream method of analysis that can be applied to raw textual data for coding and theme generation, such as thematic analysis. Rather, it overarches the entire data analysis process. Therefore, after the raw data has been coded and organised using thematic analysis and document analysis, the emergent information is conceptually analysed using the framework of processual analysis.

One of the fundamental layers of processual analysis is concerned with the context within which the organisation exists. This attribute of processual analysis concentrates on the why and the when of the change of organisational processes. Context itself encompasses the outer context and the inner context. The former is concerned with the economic, social and political influences of the wider environment of the organisation. The latter, however, is concerned with elements such as internal influences, resources capabilities, hierarchical structures, organisational culture and political norms. Understanding the context subsequently facilitates more thorough examination of the interplay between content, which focuses on the areas of transformation, as well as the processes of change, which illuminate how the transformed areas evolved (Pettigrew 1997). This approach not only informed the analysis of the findings, but also shaped the reporting of the findings.

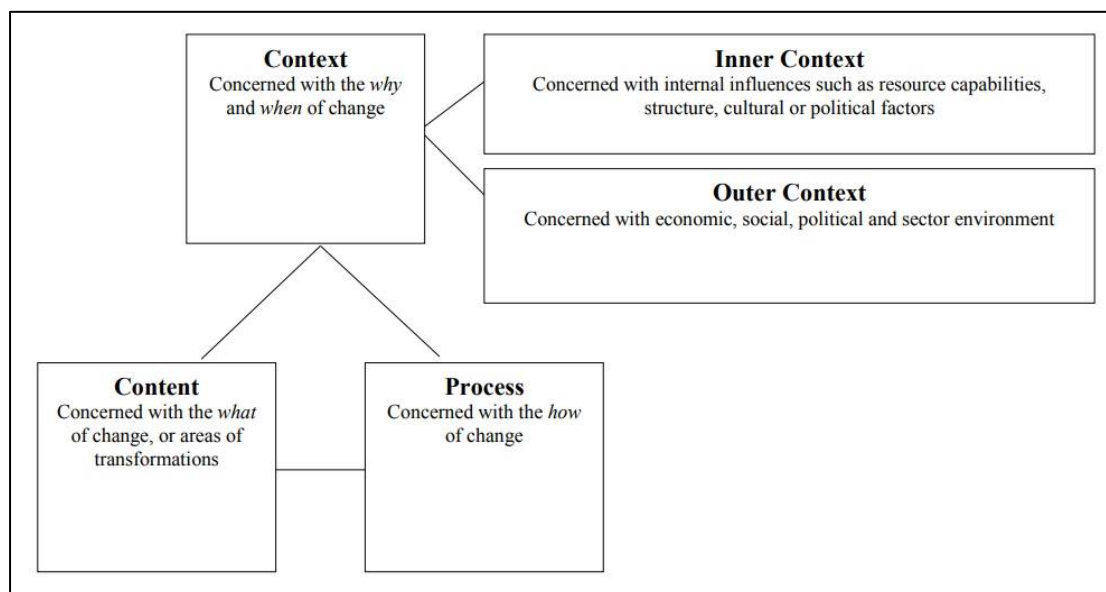


Figure 20- Processual framework for data analysis, adapted from Pettigrew (1987)

### 3.5.2. Primary data method selection

Most techniques that are used for analysing qualitative data focus on sorting, organising and indexing of data (Mason 1996). There are numerous methods for analysing qualitative data however the researcher should identify the most suitable method considering the context of the research and the desired outcomes (Buchanan and Bryman 2009, Lee 1999). This study uses Thematic Analysis, which is a foundational method for qualitative analysis and is not strictly tied to a particular epistemology (Braun and Clarke 2006, Saunders et al. 2016).

The essence of thematic analysis relates to searching for themes and patterns across a set of qualitative data, such as interview transcripts or company documents (Boyatzis 1998). This technique allows a flexible and accessible approach to the analysis of qualitative data, particularly when data is analysed inductively (Braun and Clarke 2006). According to Saunders et al. (2016), thematic analysis is beneficial for situations where large yet disparate amounts of data requires analysis, which is the case of this research. They also add that when attempting to integrate related data drawn from multiple transcripts with the aim of delivering a thematic description of such data, thematic analysis is an appropriate method. Also, this method is not necessarily connected to pre-existing theoretical frameworks and can function with the frame of multiple concepts (Braun and Clarke 2006). With thematic analysis, the researcher is able to shift through three phases of inquiry which are observation and understanding, recognition and encoding and finally interpretation (Boyatzis 1998). Thematic analysis is also a contextualist method, that makes it suitable to the analytical approach of the study which places emphasis on the role of context on social realities (Braun and Clarke 2006).

There are other methods that could be used to analyse qualitative data, including but not limited to, narrative analysis, grounded theory method, template analysis, content analysis and discourse analysis. It should be noted that the procedures of analysis in these qualitative analysis methods share several characteristics with thematic analysis (Saunders et al. 2016). Some argue that it is difficult to even identify any major differences between some of these methods, for example thematic analysis compared to template analysis as some hold that template analysis is simply a specific form of thematic analysis (King 2004b, Saunders et al. 2016). The method of analysis of grounded theory is also very similar to thematic analysis (Alhojailan 2012). There is no consensus regarding the definition of each of these methods either. For example, as Potter (2004) notes, it is challenging to identify a general agreement amongst scholars regarding what precisely, for instance, discourse analysis is. An extensive review of each of these methods is also beyond the scope of this chapter. Nonetheless, the next paragraph adequately addresses why thematic analysis was selected over the other methods as the main method for analysing the primary qualitative data.

Some of these methods, such as narrative analysis and grounded theory method mostly relate to methodological approaches that differ from the approach of this study. As their names suggest, narrative analysis and grounded theory method are mostly recommended to be utilised in their respective research strategies, which are narrative inquiry and grounded theory respectively (Saunders et al. 2016). Similarly, methods such as pattern matching, which is a form of explanation building and testing technique, are suitable for studies that take a deductive approach or have a theoretical framework constructed prior to data collection (Yin 2014). Discourse analysis, content analysis and thematic analysis perhaps share more characteristics and they are some of the mostly utilised methods for analysis of qualitative data (Gratton and Jones 2010, Philips and Di Domenico 2009). However, there are minor differences between them and these differences can inform the decision making of what method to select.

As far as discourse analysis is concerned, it is similar to thematic analysis since it focuses on drawing themes from textual data (Potter 2004). However, there are certain facets of this method which make it less suitable, compared to thematic analysis, for the context of this research. According Philips and Di Domenico (2009), discourse analysis has been mostly adopted by studies that concentrate on issues such as gender or social identity. Conceptually, these areas focus on individuals, a different level of construct compared to organisations and more specifically meta-organisations. Philips and Di Domenico (2009) also refer to organisational change as one of the other major themes that is apparent in discourse analysis studies. Although this theme relates to the focus of this study unlike gender or social identity, it has to be noted that discourse analysis approaches organisational research from a different perspective compared to thematic analysis. Discourse analysis is mostly recommended for analysing textual data that is ‘naturally occurring’ within the organisational setting, for example conversations between employees in meetings, emails, internal reports, and memos (Philips and Di Domenico 2009). The research questions of this research are addressed using data that is collected via interviews, and within those interviews, the aim is not to search for specific key words or analyse the text linguistically, which is an important trait of discourse analysis (Potter 2004). The objective is rather to focus on finding key themes and draw contextualised concepts in relation to the case study (Boyatzis 1998). Therefore, thematic analysis is used to analyse the primary collected data. Nevertheless, elements of discourse analysis can be utilised when analysing some of the secondary data, particularly the historical communication documents.

Content analysis shares a number of traits with thematic analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane 2006). In fact, due to the lack of consistency in definitions and the absence of clear boundaries, some scholars have referred to data analysis methods such as “thematic content analysis” (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas 2013). Similar to thematic analysis, content analysis involves cutting across data in the search of patterns and themes whilst coding and categorising the data (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas 2013). However, it has been mostly recommended for studies that aim to analyse the collected qualitative data quantitatively, which is not the case for this research (Saunders et al. 2016). Furthermore, compared to content analysis, thematic analysis provides greater flexibility for the researcher to analyse the data within the particular context of the study (Loffe and Yardley 2004). This is because often in content analysis the frequency of a certain category may give that category a particular importance (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas 2013). Therefore, there is a risk of losing sight of the context (Morgan 1993). If certain terms are repeated more frequently than others, it may be a result of the participants’ preferences in choices of words, a typical style of speech or simply language barriers (Sheilds and Twycross 2008). This is important because as has been previously emphasised, context is a crucial consideration in this study. Hence it was decided to not use content analysis and to focus on thematic analysis.

### 3.5.3. Thematic analysis

As explained in the previous chapter, thematic analysis is the main method of analysing primarily collected data from the interviews and open-ended questionnaires. In simple terms, thematic analysis involves searching across the data set to identify any patterns regarding the moments of importance, code those occurrences and develop these repeated meanings into themes of analysis (Braun and Clarke 2006). Each data item is an individual piece of collected data, such as a specific interview or a particular organisational document (Braun and Clarke 2006). All data items were read, re-read and subsequently were coded. A code is an identifier of a feature of the data that appears interesting to the analyst (Braun and Clarke 2006). These codes are then used to construct themes, which essentially capture something important about the data in relation to the research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set (Bruan and Clarke 2006). Themes are not necessarily identified as key purely based on the frequency of their occurrence, but instead by the importance of what they capture in relation to research questions (Braun and Clarke 2006). The figure below illustrates the iterative process of thematic analysis that informed this study. As the diagram demonstrates, codable moments were identified and consistently captured. Next, codes were developed into themes for interpretation within the context of an analytical framework such as processual analysis (Boyatzis 1998).

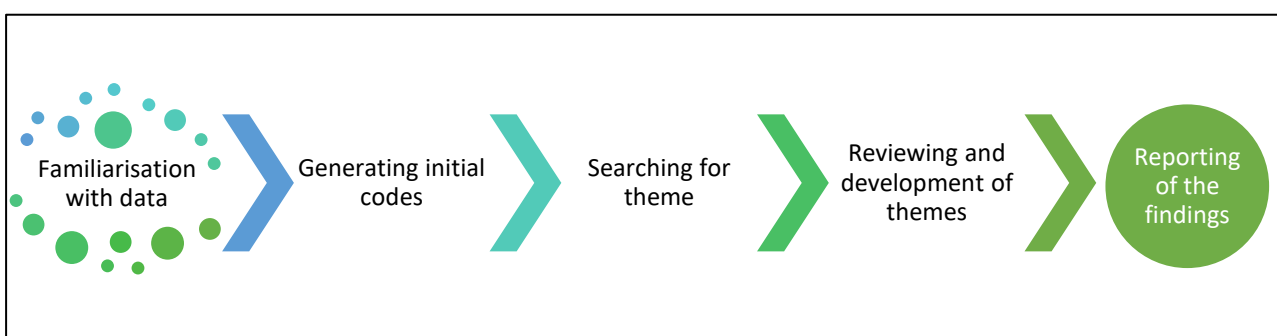


Figure 21 – Flow of thematic analysis, adapted from Boyatzis (1998)

As Boyatzis (1998) explains, purely data-driven coding and purely theoretical coding are placed at far ends of the coding continuum. Data-driven coding entails generating codes directly from the collected data to construct themes, whereas purely in a deductive approach a pre-defined list of priori codes is used in order to analyse the data. Pure theoretical coding was not used simply because this is not a deductive study. Also, pure data-driven was not used given that the study did not follow a grounded theory strategy. Considering that in previous literature, the guidelines of processual analysis and the emergent data continuously informed the coding process, it is maintained that the coding procedure was a priori-research driven falling in the middle of the coding continuum.

#### 3.5.4. Data analysis using NVivo

The analysis of collected primary data was supported by CAQDAS (Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software). One of the main challenges of qualitative research is the process of transforming large amounts of data into organised findings (Miles and Huberman 1994). Therefore, it is useful to have a well-structured data management system in place in order to coherently document, track and analyse the collected data (Wickham and Woods 2005). CAQDAS are established tools for data analysis in qualitative research and are used by scholars of various disciplines since they facilitate the process of analysing large amounts of qualitative data in a systematic manner (Woods, Macklin and Lewis 2016).

The software used for the purpose of data analysis in this research was NVivo, which is one of the most commonly used programmes in qualitative studies (Leech and Onwuegbuzie 2007, Zamawe 2015). Also, NVivo was one the main CAQDAS that was available to PhD students at Coventry University. NVivo provided a platform for all of the interview transcripts to be stored in an organised way. Also, it eased the process of coding and theme generation. This meant that risks associated with issues such as data overload and omission of important information were minimised to a great extent (Robson 2002). Nonetheless, there are issues inherent in the process of qualitative data analysis which may not be fully resolved even if CAQDAS is utilised (Woods, Macklin and Lewis 2016). For example, the risks associated with issues such as first impression bias (i.e. impressions generated in interview interactions) or interpretation inconsistencies (i.e. different evaluation or interpretation of the same data on different occasions) cannot be fully eliminated by using CAQDAS (García-Horta and Guerra-Ramos 2009). During the process of analysing the data, it was attempted to reduce such risks to a minimum.



The transcripts were inserted into NVivo and subsequently categories based on the cells outlined in section 3.4.1.4 (i.e. ASOIF, AIOWF, ARISF etc.). The framework provided in section 3.5.1. was used to generate themes. Transcripts were read and then re-read in order to identify the relevant data items. The data items were clustered into distinct nodes and through multiple iterations the key categories were devised. The table below provides an overview of the main categories that were focused on for analysis.

*Table 16- Summary key categories and codes in NVivo*

Main categories	Membership Benefits	Future Strategies	Organisational Dimensions	Perceptions
Top codes	Anti-Doping	Inclusive	Organisational Purpose	GAISF
	Multi-Sporting Events	IF-IOC Relationship	Recognition & Legitimacy	IFs of other tiers
	Recognition	Collaboration	Dependency on IOC	Smaller associations
	Technology	Communication	Ladder of IFs	GAISF restructure
	Consultancy	Bottom-Up	Heterogeneity / GAISF	Battle of Sochi

### 3.5.5. Secondary data method selection

As far as analysis of secondary data is concerned, document analysis is the main method utilised in this study. Document analysis is a systematic procedure as part of which documents, whether print or digital, are reviewed and evaluated in order to extract meaning, obtain understanding and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin and Strauss 2008, Rapley 2007). This method which combines elements of content analysis and thematic analysis, consists of extracting and analysing theoretically sampled parts of secondary data (Bowen 2009). Document analysis is recommended to studies that obtain data from secondary sources as part of a triangulation strategy, particularly for qualitative case-studies (Stake 1995, Yin 1994). Therefore, the study uses this method to analyse the secondary sources of information.

Document analysis was used to analyse the data items obtained from secondary sources. The guidelines of Bowen (2009) informed the process of the document analysis. The process of analysing secondary data involved finding, selecting, evaluating and synthesising data contained in data items (Labuschagne 2003). Document analysis combines elements of various qualitative data analysis, including thematic analysis and content analysis (Bowen 2009). Given that this study follows a case-study and not a grounded theory strategy, twelve priori search terms were used to identify relevant data extracts within each data item. In the case of press archives and historical archives this task was facilitated as a digital search function was used, where key search terms were applied to locate the relevant data extracts.

<b>Federation</b>	International Federation	IF	IFs
<b>GAIF</b>	AGFIS	GAISF	SportAccord
<b>Assembly</b>	General Assembly	Association	General Association

*Figure 22- Key search terms for document analysis*

As far as the data concerning the retrospective period, each data source was allocated a separate file, where relevant coded data extracts were stored and organised ascendingly according to the date of the documents which they were obtained from. This created a chronological sequence of events, or processes, that were reflected in each data source. Next, data extracts were reviewed and clustered into thematic categories whilst considering the processual analysis framework, thus categories were tagged with labels of context, content or process in order to prepare them for further analysis. It must be declared that the process of data mining resulted in a number of challenges. Similar to the experiences of other scholars with document analysis (Bowern 2009), data mining was not a linear process and the required workload across various data items was not even. Certain documents proved to be more challenging to extract relevant data from compared to others. Moreover, not all documents contained equally relevant data. Some documents contained a considerable amount of relevant data, whilst some other documents were hundreds of pages yet contained insignificant amount of relevant data.

### 3.6. Summary

Shaw and Hoeber (2017) state that in the sport management literature, one of the most commonly observed methodological practices is the adoption of qualitative studies with a case-study design and semi-structured interviewing method, which is similar to the methodological approach of this study. When assessing what methodology to choose, reviewing proven practices by other scholars can provide guidance. Nonetheless, in this chapter it has been attempted to showcase that the methodology of this research is not simply a consequence of following institutionalised practices and inattentive conformance to the status quo. Instead, after considering various methodological alternatives and also taking into account the context of the research and the appropriateness of methodologies in relation to research questions, the selected methodology was adopted. The following table provides a summary of this chapter.

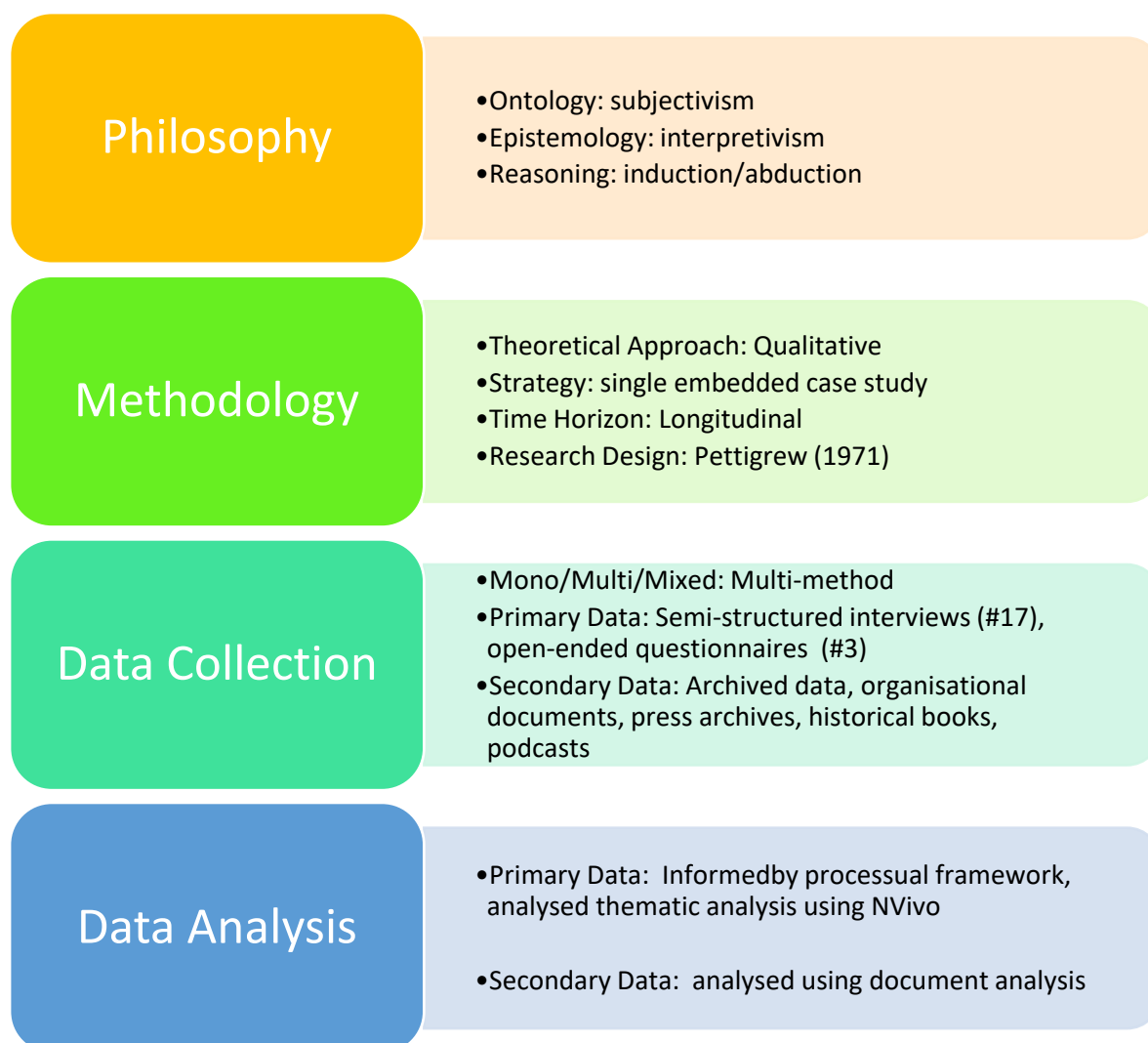


Figure 23- Summary of research methodology

# Chapter 4: Findings and discussion (1)

## 4.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings that emerged from the retrospective data collection phase. These findings relate to the emergence of meta-organisations in sport, particularly examining the case of GAISF. Firstly, it is explained what processes can stimulate organisations in a given organisational field, here IFs in the organisational field of sport, to seek formalised collective action by creating a meta-organisation. It is shown that although organisations may be able to influence their external environment through various existing institutions, if those means of influence appear to be ineffective so that those organisations are not able to manage the uncertainty in their environment, they may consider formalised collective action. Secondly, the process of emergence the meta-organisation is outlined and factors influencing this process are highlighted. It is shown that meta-organisation may be a transformation of existing loose networks into formal structures. This transformation is affected by a number of factors including changes in the inner and outer context of the organisations, institutional influences as well as effective leadership. Thirdly, the impact of the meta-organisation on the organisational field is discussed. This relates to the effect of the meta-organisation's activities on the uncertainty in the organisational environment of its members as well as on the distorted boundaries of power relating to dominant stakeholders in the field. It is learnt that dominant non-member stakeholders, whose boundaries of power have been distorted as a result of the emergence of such meta-organisation, may insert agency into the meta-organisation in order to restore the previous boundaries.

Throughout this chapter, as well as the next chapter, frequent references are made to a number of individuals that held senior positions in organisations relevant to the study, such as GAISF, IOC and IFs. The table below is provided in order to facilitate the reporting. Moreover, it is declared that all of the information provided in this chapter are sourced from the secondary data sources, mainly the historical archives of the Olympic Library. Relevant data items were identified, synthesised and presented in a cohesive and structured format. In certain cases, excerpts of original documents are provided as a point of reference. Regarding other instances where other secondary sources (e.g. historical books, organisational documents) were used, the corresponding citation is provided. As mentioned in Chapter 3, one of the conducted interviews was in relation to the retrospective phase of the data collection. Quotations from that interview are cited as [interviewee] in order to protect the anonymity of the participant.

*Table 17- List of key individuals frequently cited in the secondary data*

<b>Name</b>	<b>Organisation</b>	<b>Role</b>	<b>Period</b>
<b>Avery Brundage</b>	IOC	President	1952-1972
<b>Lord Killanin</b>	IOC	President	1972-1980
<b>Juan Antonio Samaranch</b>	IOC	President	1980- 2001
<b>Thomas Bach</b>	IOC	President	2013- Present
<b>W Berge Phillips</b>	GAISF/FINA	President	1967-1969
<b>Thomas Keller</b>	GAISF/ FISA	President	1969-1986
<b>Un Yong Kim</b>	GAISF/WTF	President	1986- 2004
<b>Marius Vizer</b>	GAISF/IJF	President	2013-2015
<b>Primo Nebiolo</b>	IAAF	President	1981-1999
<b>Marquess of Exeter (Lord Burghley)</b>	IOC/IAAF	Vice President/President	1946-1976

## 4.2. Contextual changes

In order to manage the uncertainty and dependencies imposed by the environment, organisations may unite through the medium of a meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). As far as IFs are concerned, it was obtained that changes in their inner, as well as outer, context resulted in an increased level of uncertainty in their environment. Such changes consequently stimulated the process of creating a formal meta-organisation such as GAISF. The findings show that *professionalisation* and *commercialisation* were the two major stimulants that impacted the inner context of IFs. Given that sports were initially amateur activities with limited social and commercial impact, significant resources were not needed to manage their organisational processes and reciprocal relationships amongst stakeholders of sports. Therefore, there were relatively low incentives for those stakeholders to pursue collective action. However, as organised sports proliferated, as also illustrated in section 2.4.4., the organisational field of sport began to sophisticate. Subsequently, these changes incentivised the IFs to pursue collective action through a meta-organisation. This stimulation was further amplified by the pre-existing configuration of organisational boundaries in the field of IFs. Organisational boundaries are a central phenomenon within organisational studies that may be viewed from multiple theoretical lenses (Santos and Eisenhardt 2005). “The boundary is where the discretion of the organisation to control an activity is less than the discretion of another organisation or individual to control that activity” (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978:32). As demonstrated in the figure below, Santos and Eisenhardt (2005) identify four conception of boundaries. However, given that the focus of this study on meta-organisations, who facilitate coordination to reduce dependencies, boundaries of power are particularly focused on.

	Boundaries of efficiency	Boundaries of power	Boundaries of competence	Boundaries of identity
<b>Conception of organization</b>	Governance mechanism that relies on the advantages of fiat, monitoring, and incentive alignment	Institution that facilitates coordination to reduce dependence and exercise power	Bundles of resources configured for competitive advantage in product/market domains	Social context that enables sensemaking and inspires attachment
<b>Salient organizational boundary</b>	Demarcates the transactions undertaken within the organization	Demarcates the domains over which the organization exercises influence	Demarcates the resources possessed by the organization	Demarcates the dominant mind-set of “who we are”
<b>Central goal</b>	Cost minimization	Autonomy	Growth	Coherence
<b>Theoretical roots</b>	Law Institutional economics	Industrial organization economics Resource dependence	Structural contingency theory Resource-based view	Managerial cognition Organizational identity
<b>Unit of analysis</b>	Transaction	Strategic relationship	Resource	Identity attribute
<b>Driver of vertical and horizontal boundaries</b>	Minimize the governance cost of activities by minimizing the costs of exchange (i.e., transaction, measurement, or coordination costs)	Maximize strategic control over crucial strategic relationships by controlling critical dependencies and wielding market power	Maximize the value of the organization's resources by coevolving resource configurations with market opportunities	Maintain coherence of the organization by aligning organizational activities with the organizational identity
<b>Key tools of boundary management</b>	Hierarchical mechanisms such as acquisitions and divestitures  Market mechanisms such as outsourcing agreements	Ownership mechanisms such as acquisitions and hiring  Nonownership mechanisms such as collusion, lobbying, consortia, alliances, friendship ties, and board relationships	Externally oriented dynamic capabilities such as acquisitions, divestitures, and alliances  Internally oriented dynamic capabilities such as patching and product development	Conscious mechanisms such as explicit adoption of mental models from other settings and replacing the organizational elite  Unconscious mechanisms such as conforming to image and to industry blueprints
<b>Unique perspective</b>	Market versus hierarchy	Ownership versus control	Possession versus deployment	Conscious versus unconscious

Figure 24 – Four theoretical views on organisational boundaries, adapted from Santos and Eisenhardt (2005)

The aforementioned processes of professionalisation and commercialisation created new challenges for the IFs. However, given the blurry boundaries in the field, there was a lack of clarity in terms of extent of authority of various stakeholder groups within the field. Whilst each stakeholder group attempted to act as an autonomous actor, it was observed that the initial boundaries in the field were noticeably influenced by the interdependencies amongst members of the field. Organisations such as the IOC, who had managed to establish a dominant position in the field, from a resource dependency perspective, sought to maintain the boundaries in a way that would enable them to exercise greater authority in relation to management of the newly emerged uncertainties. On the other hand, IFs were continuously being impacted by the increasing levels of uncertainty in their environment, yet they were unable to adequately address those uncertainties. As a result, they were incentivised to seek formalised collective action in order to increase their influence on management of the inner context uncertainties.

#### 4.2.1. Professionalisation

Professionalisation was identified as one of the chief processes that stimulated the process of emergence of GAISF. The concept of professionalisation, which has been discussed in management scholarly work for over 80 years, has been widely investigated in the context of sports (Dowling, Edwards and Washington 2014). Professionalisation is understood as a process by which individuals, organisations, and systems become a professional association or receive accreditation (Abbott 1991). Such process may include specialised training and skills, exclusivity, complexity, code of ethics, gaining specific credentials, and establishing professional–client relationships (Vollmer and Mills 1966). The figure below, adapted from Dowling, Edwards and Washington (2014), summarises three main streams of professionalisation in sport. It is important to elaborate on each stream in order to better understand how professionalisation influenced the organisational context of IFs, resulting in emergence of GAISF.

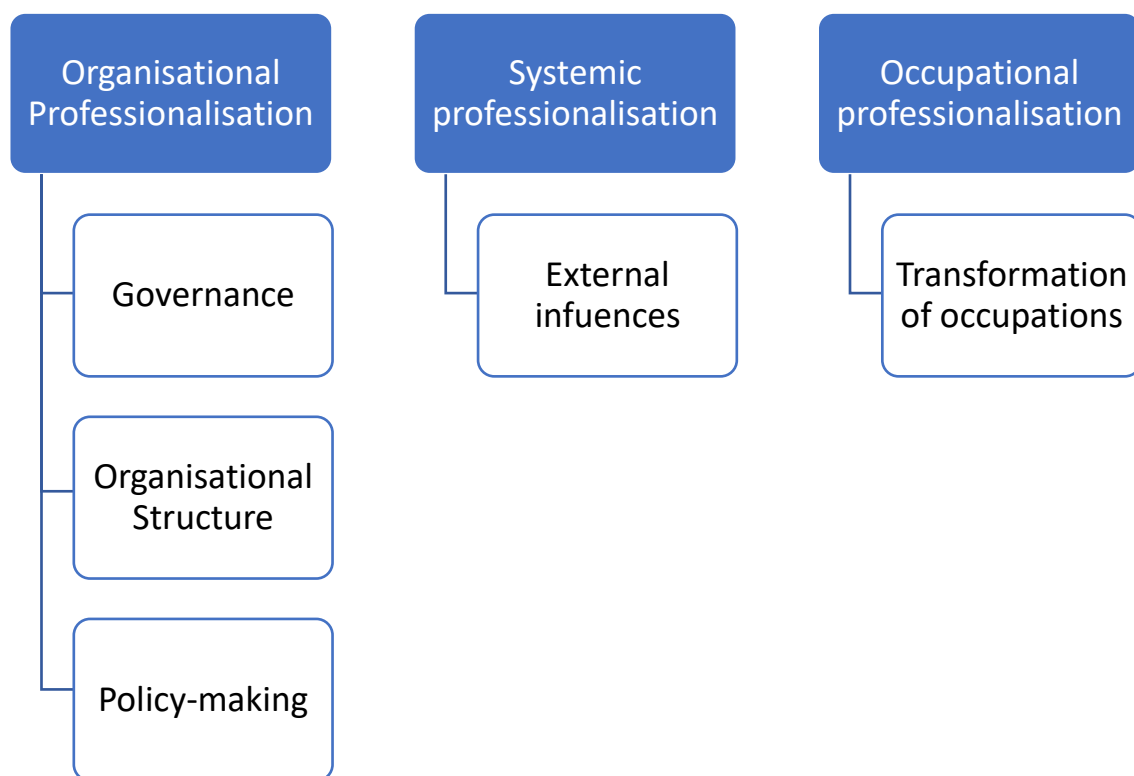


Figure 25- Main streams of professionalisation, adapted from Dowling, Edwards and Washington (2014)



Organisational professionalisation refers to the process of change that has been the result of an influx of full-time business-like professionals into organisations that used to be run on a voluntary basis (Dowling, Edwards and Washington 2014). Scholars have particularly focused on the impact of organisational professionalisation on governance (e.g. Shilbury and Ferkins 2010), organisational structure (e.g. Slack and Hinings 1992) and policy making (e.g. Houlihan and Green 2009). The second stream refers to systemic professionalisation at part of which organisational fields institutionally professionalise due to external influences, for example due to coercive pressures from governments (O'Brien and Slack 2003, 2004). The third stream of professionalisation refers to work-related professionalisation, concerning transformation of occupations into professions (Vollmer and Mills 1966). Regarding the context of sports, it was learnt that professionalisation occurred across and within all three streams. It was obtained that organisational professionalisation impacted governance, organisational structure and policy making of not only IFs, but the Olympic Movement as a whole. Such change had an impact on the organisational boundaries of IFs and their stakeholders, resulting in uncertainty and dependencies. Consequently, this contributed towards the movement of IFs towards collective action.

The professionalisation within the inner context of the IFs began with occupational professionalisation, particularly concerning the athletes. Professionalism in sport conflicted with the institutionalised logics that had been nurtured by dominant stakeholders in the inner context of IFs. Originally, the IOC was against professionalism in sport and only allowed amateur athletes into the Games. However, due to the lack of a systematic monitoring mechanism, the number of professional athletes competing in the Games increased over time.

*“Mr. Brundage spoke of the difficulties that we have had with the International Federations of Skating, Football and Skiing who are sliding more and more in the direction of professionalism and he had warned them against repeated infractions of the code of amateurism.”*

*Quote 1 – IOC Session 1966, IOC's negative stance towards professionalisation*

At first, the IOC considered eliminating certain sports, such as football and cycling, from the Games entirely as it believed that most competitions organised in those sports offered cash prizes for winners, hence most athletes of those sports participating in the Games could not be classified as amateurs. For instance, in 1964 the Italian football team was not entered the Games because its amateur status was questioned. Subsequently, this issue became a major topic for debate between IFs and the IOC as there was no coherent framework to define amateurism and to identify amateur athletes. Although some stakeholders held the opinion that IFs should define their own rules regarding amateurism, senior IOC members were against delegation of authority to the IFs and stressed that the IOC had to have its own rules regarding amateurism. It is observed that the occupational professionalisation increased uncertainty in the organisational environment of IFs as boundaries of power were being distorted (Santos and Eisenhardt 2005).

*“At the time of our meeting in Tokyo, the IOC decided to eliminate the sports whose federations govern professional sport and amateur sport at the same time.”*

*Quote 2 – IOC Session 1965, example of elimination of professionals from the Games*

*“Mr. Bo Ekelund (Sweden) considers that the question of amateurism should be left entirely to the International Federations. The President thought of solution consisting in recognizing the rules of amateurism drawn by the International Federations, while abandoning these of the I.O.C. He is dubious if this is a good way to solve the problem, it may appear sheer defeatism on our part. Mr. Taher is of opinion that the I.O.C. must have its own ruling.”*

*Quote 3- IOC Executive Board Meeting, debate over authority over amateurism ruling*

Occupational professionalisation was followed by systemic professionalisation. In order to address the amateurism issue, the IOC originally proposed that the IFs that govern sports in which professional athletes participate should be split into two separate organisations. The idea was to have one federation to govern the amateurs and the other federation to govern the professionals. Such coercive pressures on the IFs from an external actor such as the IOC exemplifies systemic professionalisation.

*“.....to give F.I.F.A. and U.C.I a year to create an independent international amateur Federation failing which their sports would be eliminated from the Olympic programme”*

*Quote 2 – IOC Session 1964, IOC imposing coercive pressures to induce institutional change*

More importantly, organisational professionalisation influenced the inner context of the Olympic Movement. IFs were affected by the professionalisation process structurally. Most IFs were initially founded by amateurs in order to oversee amateur activities conducted by amateur athletes. However, as the participating athletes became professionals, the governing bodies of sports also began to gradually transition from volunteer-led organisations to professional organisations.

*"Back then, it was all very amateur. Most sports had very little money, very little resources. Presidents and Secretary Generals tended to be amateurs with no money or payment for their role, and they were more active in terms of looking after the sport, in a volunteering capacity, and the commercialism was not there. FIFA at the time was still a very modest organisation."*

*Quote 3 – Interviewee, amateur state of sports pre-commercialisation*

Organisational professionalisation was observed in other stakeholders of the Movement such as the IOC. In the 1960s, the emergence of commercial TV and the advent of TV rights had enabled the IOC to generate adequate resources to adopt professionalised processes. In a letter written by Brundage that was circulated to IOC members in 1967, he stated that in 1960 the operating expenses of the IOC's office in Lausanne averaged about \$10,000 per year whilst the presidential office of Chicago was being operated at no cost to the IOC. He continued that for the year of 1966, the expenses of the IOC had surpassed \$60,000. He added that IOC's treasurer had set their budgets for their expenses of the next three years at \$120,000 for the first year, advancing to \$140,000 until the final year. Brundage also highlighted that previously the IOC did not even have a treasurer, however given the large sums of money which the IOC had begun to manage it was needed to have a treasurer. The paradoxical approach of the IOC was noteworthy given that although it had realised sports required professional staff for its operations, it was not against professional athletes.

*"It is therefore necessary to increase the importance of our office by appointing more qualified people, so that real progress can be made, especially now that television funds are available."*

*Quote 6- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1967, IOC attempting to expand its personnel*

*"The Secretary General took the floor. He stated that, when he came into office, there were only two people working part-time in Lausanne and the President's office in Chicago. If we really want to accomplish our great task, we must build up a real centre in Switzerland, with 10 - 15 male, or female, collaborators, capable of fulfilling the different tasks."*

*Quote 7- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1967, IOC's desire to employ full-time staff*

#### 4.2.2. Commercialisation

Professionalisation in sport has a direct correlation with the rise of commercialisation in this field, particularly during the 1960s and 1970s that coincided with the advent of commercial TV (Slack 2003). Commercialisation accelerated the professionalisation process which highlighted the necessity for professional management of organisational processes within the sector (Robinson 2008). Such change coupled with increased uncertainty in the organisational environment of IFs stimulated them towards pursuing collective action. The process of commercialisation changed the dynamics of resource distribution within the sport sector as it not only introduced them to new revenue streams such as media rights (e.g. broadcast rights) and commercial rights (e.g. sponsorship), but it also raised awareness regarding the full potential of existing revenue streams (e.g. matchday revenue) (Slack 2003). Even today, broadcast rights, sponsorship and commercial activities as well as matchday revenue constitute the three main sources of revenue for sport organisations (Gratton and Solberg 2007). However, when these revenue streams emerged into the field of IFs, similar to professionalisation, they conflicted with the institutionalised values in their field. Dominant stakeholders such as the IOC were also ensuring that such values remain uninfluenced.

As obtained from the historical data, prior to the 1960s there was little to no activity around the sale of TV rights to the Games and commercial activities such as sponsorship were also minimal. One of the first revenue streams which IFs believed they could generate more resources from was matchday revenues, particularly from the ticketing of their events during the Games. IFs presented a plan to the IOC that involved imposing a tax on the tickets to generate an additional 5% in revenues. Although IFs emphasised that the Games was effectively a multi-sporting event composed of events organised by IFs, hence this was not a “gift” to them, the IOC claimed its share of the additional tax. Thus, the proposal was approved based on a distribution plan of 3% to IFs and 2% to the IOC. This was one of the first instances of the IOC as a dominant stakeholder imposing its control over management and distribution of resources.

*“As unanimously approved by the International Federations at Evian, a surcharge of 5% be placed on the tickets of spectators at the Games. Three per cent of this should be given to the International Federations concerned, the remaining two per cent to go to the IOC.”*

*Quote 8- IOC Session 1957, IOC claiming a share of the surcharge tax added to the tickets of the events at the Games*

Although certain resource generating processes such as ticketing had been established previously in the organisational field of the IFs, emergent revenue streams conflicted with the pre-existing institutional logics. Similar to the debate over professionalism, the IOC was against marketing activities, such as sponsorship and advertising, in sport hence its aim was to eliminate such activities from the Games. The changing inner context of IFs, here from an economic perspective, once again resulted in uncertainty as a by-product of distorted organisational boundaries. Certain IFs had been openly engaging with marketing activities and therefore the IOC was determined to counter such practices. Nonetheless, similar to the issue of amateurism, there was no clear framework to govern such processes. There was no detailed policy that defined what commercial activities were not allowed and more importantly, it was not clear who had the authority to set such policies. Certain IFs argued that the IFs and the IOC should discuss this matter in order to agree on a common policy. However, the IOC believed that this matter was under the authority of the IOC and described engagement in commercial activities by IFs as an “open challenge to the IOC”.

*“Prohibition of advertising in sport venues and on numbers, etc. President Brundage gave a review of the situation existing in several sports federations as for example cycling, shooting and equestrian”*

*Quote 9- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1966, IOC banning advertising*

*“Mrs. Frith (Archery) informed the assembly that some Olympic sports accept the sponsorship of commercial firms for international competitions. She felt that this practice should be discussed by both I.F.s and I.O.C. in order to agree on a common policy. President Brundage answered that the I.O.C. would give attention to this question in the light of experiences in several countries and will report on its conclusions.”*

*Quote 10- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1965, IFs accepting sponsorship*

*“The President called attention to the astonishing public statements made by President Hodler and other officials of the ISF. Apparently the ISF is permitting contestants to advertise ski resorts, skis and ski equipment and to be paid directly instead of under the table. This is an open challenge to the IOC, and will undoubtedly effect the Olympic Winter Games. A general discussion was had, with the presence of Mr. Staubo, who came to Lausanne for the meeting.”*

*Quote 11- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1969, IOC against advertising*

One of the main arguments of the meta-organisation theory is that the more heterogeneous the members are the weaker the meta-organisation will be (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). However, heterogeneity criteria are not clearly defined in the theory. Here it was obtained that heterogeneity impacts the progress of seeking collective action as well. Also, it is the diversity in organisational interest and objectives that underpins heterogeneity in the context of mobilising stakeholders. As it was gathered from the historical data, IFs themselves had diverse opinions on numerous topics. Certain IFs (e.g. Olympic IFs such as IAAF, the IF of athletics) had closer relationships with dominant stakeholders such as the IOC than others. Therefore, some IFs had the tendency to position themselves closer to the interests of the stakeholders that controlled the resources whilst others aimed to maintain a more independent stance. This was apparent in the debate over marketing activities. IFs closer to the IOC, such as IAAF, believed sponsorship should be eliminated at world championships and international tournaments and restricting to local competitions. FIFA also held a similar position and was in favour of removing commercial advertising from the Games and international competitions. However, it insisted on maintaining advertising opportunities at lower levels. Surprisingly, some IFs (e.g. boxing and swimming) stated that they were actively battling sponsorship and advertising out of their sports.

*“The Marquess of Exeter felt that no advertising should be allowed at World Championships or international competitions, but that on a lower level it was permissible and indeed essential, for otherwise many sports competitions could not be held for lack of funds.”*

*“Dr. Käser (Fédération Internationale de Football Amateur) announced that FIFA had strong rules forbidding advertising at the Olympic Games and international championships, but the federation would take strong exception if the IOC banned advertising at a lower level. He considered sponsorship fully acceptable as long as the athlete received nothing and the money went to the clubs.”*

*Quotes 12 & 13- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, FIFA and IAAF calling for no advertising at international level but permitted at local level*

*“Dr. Henning (Fédération Internationale de Natation) said that in the past swimming had known a lot of advertising, but the FINA was clamping down on this and was taking a very strong stand against sponsorship.”*

*“Mr. Denisov (Association Internationale de Boxe Amateur) stated that any kind of advertising was prohibited in boxing from the highest to the lowest level, and he was of the opinion that advertising meant the demoralisation of sport.”*

*Quotes 14& 15- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, Boxing and Swimming IFs actively against advertising*

Nevertheless, other IFs were arguing that a general rule cannot be applied to all as some were dependent on such resources. This view was shared amongst a number of IFs including both summer and winter sports. For example, the IF of judo stated that it could not abolish sponsorships from its major events such as world championships, considering that those sponsorships generated a significant portion of its overall revenue. Also, in the case of their sport, there were simply no advertising opportunities at regional competitions. Similarly, the IF of ice hockey highlighted the role of sponsorship revenues in their ability to host their world championships and emphasised that the decision as to whether allow advertising at national levels was the concern of national governing bodies.

*“Mr. Palmer (International Judo Federation) stated that his sport depended on sponsorship even at international level. In fact, as far as Judo was concerned, there was no advertising at a lower level.”*

*“Mr. Ahearne (International Ice Hockey Federation) stated that his federation received over two million pounds sterling from sponsorship, and it was due to this that there were 22 national teams in the World Championships every year. At the national level he felt it was for the national federation to decide. In any case the competitors received nothing, the receipts being ploughed back into the federation.”*

*Quotes 16& 17- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, Judo and Ice Hockey stating their financial need for advertising*

Members of the IOC, however, disagreed with both stances of IFs as they argued that there needed to be consistency in the policies. Similar to the case of not allowing athletes to be amateur in one sport and professional in another, it was argued that it would be unethical to allow sponsorships in one set of competitions and prohibit in other competitions. They argued that the best solution would be to forbid advertising at all levels. The main concern of the IOC was protecting amateur athletes thus it was proposed the authority regarding this matter to be delegated to NOCs so they could prohibit advertising at national level. However, one popular view amongst IFs was that the IOC was allowed to dictate the policies regarding sponsorship activities only as far as the Games. The commercial activities that could take place at world championships and other intercontinental competitions was a matter of concern for the IFs only.

*“Mr. Daume (IOC) felt it unethical to admit sponsorship for some competitions and to forbid it at others. In his country amateur sport was facing serious problems and he considered it essential that NOCs should be allowed to prohibit advertising in their country.”*

*“Gen. Thofelt (Union Internationale de Pentathlon Moderne et Biathlon) felt that the IOC could only dictate to the IFs at the Olympic Games and Regional Games, and that sponsorship at World and Continental Championships was for the IF to decide.”*

*Quotes 18& 19 - IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, IOC looking to impose its ruling on via its agents (i.e. NOCs) whilst IFs seek to preserve autonomy*



Examining the debate on marketing activities shows that inner context changes, that distorted the boundaries of power and resulted in uncertainty, provided further invectives for a group organisation to pursue collective action. Nonetheless, it is observed that heterogeneity in term of organisational interests can hinder the progress towards collective action. Despite this heterogeneity, when an increase in a sector's collective payoff is more beneficial to each organisation than individual gains, organisations are more likely to collaborate through a unified platform to protect and promote their economic interests (Barnett 2018). Similarly, organisations in the same sector may aim to reinforce their collective identity, despite potential rivalrous relationships, and express their solidarity through an organised effort (Barnett 2018). This point was more apparent when the debate over commercial considerations in sport was extended to the distribution funds generated from sale of TV rights, a revenue stream that was significantly more important than ticketing or advertising.

Following turbulent times and major global disruptions such as World War II, the commercialisation of electronic media such as television began to gain pace in the 1950s (Alaszkiwicz and McPahil 1986). As a result, sport properties were able to raise funds by selling the broadcasting rights of their audio-visual content to TV and radio firms. The Games, given its global appeal, was of particular interest to broadcasters (Senn 1999). IFs had become aware of the potential financial gains that they could receive; therefore, they requested the IOC to give them a share of that revenue. However, this boom in commercialisation of electronic media was more appreciable in territories such as the USA where capitalism prevailed. Most of the key international sport organisations were based in Europe, where the majority of institutions would adhere to socialist policies (Kornai 2008). Hence the commercialisation of social products such as sports was not growing at the same pace as in the North American markets. This contrast led organisations such as the IOC to face puzzling scenarios. On one hand, it was being observed that TV companies in the US were prepared to pay large sums for the rights to televise sporting events. On the other hand, however, other broadcasters were expecting free access to the Games based on arguments centred on freedom of information.

*“At the Paris Session, the International Federations applied for a share of the profits deriving from the television of the Games. There are private American firms, for instance, who pay astronomical prices to acquire the rights to televise important sporting events. It seems that the television firms are of a mind that television forms a part of an integral whole which comprises: the press, diffusing and all the devices which contribute to the free broadcasting of news to the general public. The television corporations, some of which are run on a national basis, reckon that they must have free of charge the right to show their pictures to their subscribers”*

*Quote 20- IOC Session 1955, IFs asking for a share of the profits from the sale of TV rights*



The IOC claimed that TV firms had strongly demanded free access to the Games and Brundage had been receiving threats from the broadcasters warning him that if the IOC blocked their access to the Games, they might boycott the coverage of the event entirely. Certain stakeholders of the Movement expressed their willingness to independently establish a dialogue with the relevant organisations in relation to TV rights in order to resolve the matter. However, the IOC had also warned the concerned stakeholders, particularly the local organising committees, to refrain from any direct negotiations with broadcasters without the approval of the IOC. Hereby it is observed that changes in the socio-economic context of IFs resulted in significant changes in their environment, particularly in relation to the distribution of resources. Also, boundary conflicts are observed as well given that the IOC, as a dominant stakeholder, attempted to be the main influencer on this changing process. However, revenues that were generated from TV rights after the 1960 Games in Rome became so significant to the IFs hence that the uncertainties regarding distribution of them became a driving factor to pursue collective action. This driving factor was underpinned by the fact that here was no clear framework that outlined the basis upon which the TV money was to be distributed. The uncertainty and lack of a clear policy on distribution of the TV money was manifested at multiple levels. The first level of the debate focused on the share that IFs were entitled to in total. The main goal of the IFs was to receive a third of the total TV revenues, however the early distribution policies delivered significantly less to the IFs.

*“The I.O.C. has asked them not to undertake anything in this respect without its approval.”*

*Quote 21- IOC Session 1956 IOC controlling the TV rights dialogue*

*“President Brundage stipulated that the distribution of the television rights would be made under the authority of the I.O.C. who reserves the right to distribute them according to their importance.”*

*Quote 22- IOC Session 1966, IOC imposing its authority over distribution of TV rights*

*“The IOC therefore regrets that it cannot comply with the request to give one third of all receipts from the sale of Television Rights to the ISFs.”*

*Quote 23- IOC Session 1968, IOC rejecting IFs request to provide them with one third of all TV rights revenues*

As explained in the autobiography of Lord Killanin, the successor Brundage, the debates over the distribution of the TV money almost fractured the entire Movement (Killanin 1983). He admitted that the IFs had become very frustrated over the debate on the distribution TV money, however the IOC was well aware that the IFs were dependant on those revenues hence they needed stay in the Games (Killanin 1983). Several IFs had stated that they rely on such revenues in order manage their daily operations, cover the expenses of technical personnel and support the officials. However, there was a diversity in the extent of dependency amongst IFs. Some IFs, such as FIFA, were less dependent on such resources given that their own events generated significant revenues whilst some other IFs needed the TV money in order to sustain themselves.

*“Mr. State, on behalf of the International Weightlifting Federation, again posed the problem of the expenses of referees and judges. He asked the IOC to give the International Federations an increased allocation of TV money to allow the IFs to pay these expenses.” IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974*

*“Mr. Hodler, President of the International Ski Federation, stated that as far as his sport was concerned the Federation needed TV money to pay the expenses of the technical control of the competitions.” IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974*

*Quote 24& 25- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, IFs asking for a higher share of TV rights revenues in order to cover their expenses*

*“[IOC President] The International Federations received large sums of money from TV rights and many of them did not quite know what to do with it. Some sports could manage without the money, for example football, but most of them had come to rely on this money to keep them going for the years between the Olympiads.”*

*Quote 26- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1972, IOC acknowledging dependency on TV money varies amongst IFs*

*“It had to be remembered that some of the IFs were very strong and did not need the television rights' money from the Olympic Games.”*

*Quote 27 - IOC Executive Board Meeting 1984, IOC acknowledging dependency on TV money varies amongst IFs*

*“Mr. Sällfors [IOC] pointed out that certain IFs whose means are limited (e.g. Swimming, Modern Pentathlon, etc.) needed money in order to constitute a suitable secretariat.”*

*Quote 28 - IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1968, IOC acknowledges that some IFs need the TV money to be able to operate*

*“Olympic Games' rights were very important for the smaller IFs, but a pittance for the athletics or football IFs.” IOC Executive Board Meeting 1984*

*Quote 29- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1984, More resource IFs such as FIFA rely less on the Olympics TV money*

The second level of the debate was centred around which IFs were eligible to receive the TV revenue. The heterogeneity amongst IFs in terms of their degree of dependency on TV money impacted the way in which each IF positioned itself within the money distribution debate. Previously, some IFs had enquired about the possibility of hosting their own world championships during an Olympic year. Initially, the IOC stated that such matter was up to each individual IF to decide. This was particularly important for IFs given that those that combined their own event with the Games essentially lost a source of revenue. However, later the IOC proposed a rule on that issue which stated that only IFs that used the Games as the occasion of their world championships would receive a share from the TV money. This was supported by IFs who did use the Games as their occasion of their world championships given that this would have increased their share.

*“Brundage informs the Assembly that he has brought this point No. 6 on the Agenda, solely with the view to tell the I.F. that the matter of organizing the world Championships during the Olympic Years falls entirely under the competence of the I.F. and does not concern the I.O.C. in anyway. This is reply to a query forwarded by the I.F.”*

*Quote 30- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1957, IOC stating that IF have the authority to host World Championships during an Olympic year*

*“Those, and it is the case with the I.A.A.F., which consider the Olympic Games as being their own World Championships, lose an important source of income since in the Olympic year, they do not hold such championships.”- IOC Executive Board Meeting with International Federations 1959*

*Quote 31- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1959, IAAF expressing allegiance to the IOC*

*“The Marquess of Exeter specified that the distribution foreseen by the I.O.C. would only be allotted to the I.F.s who make the Olympic Games the occasion of their world championships.”*

*Quote 32- IOC Session 1966, IOC members asking calling for IFs to regard the Games as the occasion of their World Championships*

*“There followed a discussion in which Messrs. Ferri and Russell expressed their opposition to the organisation of world championships during Olympic Years for reasons of ideology and the prestige of the Olympic Movement, whereas Messrs. State and de Coquereaumont spoke in favour of the independence of the IFs.”*

*Quote 33- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1968, IFs maintaining their autonomy and independence*

Another dimension of the debate over TV money was about the distribution of the funds amongst the IFs. This dimension linked to the lack of clarity about how much each individual IF was entitled to. This issue became one of the fundamental factors that fostered competitive behaviour amongst IFs even further given that IFs were essentially competing for the same resources. For instance, some were arguing that because their sport attracted larger numbers of spectators at the Games, they should have been due a larger share of the TV money. However, other IFs disputed that the number of spectators at the events would significantly depend on a broad range of factors such as the nature of the sport and the capacity of the available venue. Nevertheless, although the rationale behind using gate receipts as a key metric for fund allocation was not exceptionally persuasive, the argument of certain IFs receiving a larger share than others remained in place. Such logic was particularly supported by IFs of sports that were an integral part of the Games, such as Athletics, and were relatively more influential organisations in comparison to other IFs.

*“The Marquess of Exeter explained the procedure he used for the distribution of television rights among all IFs. He stressed that his Federation made enormous sacrifices. Actually it should have received higher returns. As it is certain Federations, logically entitled to very little, were granted considerable amounts”*

*Quote 34- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1968, Athletics asking for a greater share than other IFs*

*“Mr. Ahearne remarked on the discrimination between Winter Games and Summer Games and it was requested that the lump sum for the Olympic Games be distributed equally between all IFs.”*

*Quote 35 - IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1968, Winter IFs ask for an equal share compared to the Summer IFs*

Given the evidence that has been reviewed thus far, it is understood that professionalisation and commercialisation had a significant impact on the environment of the IFs. At the same time that the outcomes of these processes conflicted with the values of the dominant stakeholder of the field, boundaries of power were blurry as well. These were new and field-defining processes that stakeholders of the Movement had not previously engaged with. Therefore, the stakeholder with higher autonomy controlled the narrative over the various contentious debates. It also has been observed that heterogeneity of IFs in terms of their organisational objectives had noticeable impact on the collective progress IFs towards achieving their desired outcomes.

#### 4.2.3. Knowledge and expertise

It has been discussed how changes in the organisational environment of a group of organisations in the same field has resulted in uncertainty and subsequently provides the reasons to consider collective action. So far, this has been discussed from the perspective of distorted boundaries and the role dominant stakeholders that have an influential role in controlling key resources. However, the uncertainty in the environment was also expressed through other forms particularly in terms of a lack of relevant expertise and competencies.

As mentioned earlier, most IFs were originally voluntary-run organisations. They were led by administrators who were only skilled enough to manage the day to day operations of the organisation and organise sporting events without major commercial complications. However, as their environment was professionalised and commercialised, the amount of resources that needed expert management increased. Therefore, IFs leaders needed to have the knowledge and knowhow to manage new organisational processes which they previously did not need. For instance, as far as the emergence of TV rights were concerned, IFs did not fully understand the intricacies of media rights and all the subsequent processes that their organisations had to engage with as a by-product of receiving those resources. These processes included issues related to legal matters associated with contracts, financial matters such as tax and technological considerations such as broadcast technology. Although the IOC itself did not have the required competence to address such issues, it was determined to maintain its control over the TV money matters.

*"The IFs negotiation for TV rights would bring them into the field of tax."*

*Quote 36- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1970, IFs lacking knowledge in relation to tax*

*"Dr. Käser [FIFA] had been asked to serve on the IOC TV Advisory Committee, and any assistance the IFs could give the IOC on television questions would be appreciated"*

*Quote 37- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, IOC lacking the expertise on TV rights matters*

*"Mr. Denisov, on behalf of the International Amateur Boxing Federation, thought it entirely wrong to distribute the TV money according to gate receipts. He suggested calling in financial experts so that each Federation would be guaranteed to receive a fair proportion."*

*Quote 38- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974, some IFs call for financial experts to take on the task of distribution the TV money*

*"Television rights had just began to be appreciated, organisations such as ABC (American Broadcasting Corporation) that provided some coverage of sporting events but all in all, that kind of things [broadcast rights etc.] were in their early days. Because there was very little way of TV revenues, commercial revenues, hence there were a lot of issues to be discussed and debated on." [1]*

*Quote 39- [Interviewee], commercialisation of sports presented a need in the field for specialised expertise*

#### 4.2.4. Institutional resources

Thus far, the discussion has been focused on the changes in the context of the IFs that resulted in uncertainty, particularly in relation to distortion of boundaries of power and influence over resource distribution within the organisation field of the IFs. These resources have been mostly direct, such as the TV money, in the sense that the resource itself was liquidated and available for immediate investment into the various organisational processes. However, in the organisational field of IFs there were a few indirect resources which dominant stakeholders such as the IOC had established influence on.

Recognition by the IOC, which was effectively the primary step to get included in the Olympic programme, was one of the most notable examples of such intangible and indirect resource. Recognition by the IOC did not immediately translate into a tangible benefit. For example, if an IF obtained the recognition of the IOC, it did not receive a monetary value in return. However, the IOC recognition meant increased legitimacy, credibility and uniqueness for the IF, highlighting its role as the sole governing body of its respective sport. Such recognition would then allow the IF to access direct resources such government funding or endorsements, ahead of unrecognised sporting organisations.

The impact of such recognition processes is similar to meta-organisations and their members, as the purpose of some meta-organisations may be to reinforce the identity of the members and increase their legitimacy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Similarly, IFs had the role to recognise national governing bodies (NGBs) in each country. This was fairly important role given that IFs, being meta-organisations themselves, were essentially composed of NGBs. The uncertainty linked to the recognition process was identified as a stimulant of the movement of IFs towards collective action. This uncertainty impacted the IFs across two levels, one was the process of their own recognition by the IOC and the other the process of IFs recognising NGBs. It has been obtained that the dominant stakeholder established direct and indirect dependencies on this intangible resource by ensuring that the management of the recognition process were positioned within its boundaries of power.

*“[IOC Sport Director] As I mentioned in my previous reports, there are many requests for recognition from IFs or associations, it being true that the "IOC label" gives legitimacy to associations, particularly with national governments in terms of financial support for their sport.”*

*Quote 40- IOC Session 1994, Legitimacy from IOC recognition for the recognised IFs*

The impact of such recognition processes is similar to meta-organisations and their members, as the purpose of some meta-organisations may be to reinforce the identity of the members and increase their legitimacy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). Similarly, IFs had the role to recognise national governing bodies (NGBs) in each country. This was fairly important role given that IFs, being meta-organisations themselves, were essentially composed of NGBs. The uncertainty linked to the recognition process was identified as a stimulant of the movement of IFs towards collective action. This uncertainty impacted the IFs across two levels, one was the process of their own recognition by the IOC and the other the process of IFs recognising NGBs. It has been obtained that the dominant stakeholder established direct and indirect dependencies on this intangible resource by ensuring that the management of the recognition process were positioned within its boundaries of power.

As far as recognition of NGBs was concerned, originally IFs were independently managing the processes based on their own criteria. However, due to issues such as the emergence of parallel organisations at national level, it was argued that as part of the recognition process, IFs should consult with the NOCs, which are effectively the agents of the IOC. Through this approach, the dominant stakeholder indirectly imposed its influence on the member recruitment process of meta-organisations such as IFs.

*“Lord Burghley (E.C) thinks that the I.F. should have full particulars on the candidature they receive, while acknowledging the I.F’s autonomy, he is of the opinion, that the I.F, should make full inquiries with the N.O.C which are an integral part of our Movement.”*

*Quote 41- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1952*

*“The F.I.L.A. stated that it would recognise the National Federation which was recognised by the National Olympic Committee, and this was logical since the National Olympic Committee was the one which knew the most about sport in its country.”*

*Quote 42- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1972*

*“It transpired that there were many differences between the rules of certain International Federations and those of the I.O.C. with regard to recognition of National Federations. The unanimous view of the International Federations was that only one National Federation could be recognised in each country and that the whole question should be regulated in close co-operation with the respective National Olympic Committees.”*

*Quote 43- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1972*



Moreover, the process of recognising IFs by the IOC was an even more debatable issue. Similar to the previously discussed issues, the problem in this regard stemmed from uncertainty and lack of objective guidelines, which still exists today. Originally the IOC only recognised the IFs that were part of the Olympic programme. However, given the rising number of IFs and the increased complexity in the technical aspects of sports, the recognition process had become more challenging. The change in the organisational field meant new IFs would emerge and seek entrance to the Olympic Movement. However, there was no criteria on what could be considered a sport and what criteria an organisation needed to meet in order to be recognised as an IF. Similar to the previously mentioned issues, the IOC as the dominant stakeholder ensured the process of recognition remained within its boundaries of power.

*“Referring to sports included in the Olympic Program, the I.O.C. reserves to itself the right to designate them.” IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1966*

*Quote 44- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1966*

*“Mr Keller [Rowing] thought the IOC should issue guidelines for those sports who would like recognition and how they should proceed.”*

*Quote 45- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1973*

*“IFs, and in particular the Marquess of Exeter and Mr. Hacking, did not agree. They considered it perfectly in order for this to take place, the more so as it was difficult to draw the line between sports and other activities, sport was hard to define and could even be taken to include ballroom dancing or chess.”*

*Quote 46- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1974*

This issue was of importance to the IFs as IOC recognition would have enabled to be considered for inclusion in the Olympic programme and gain increased legitimacy and credibility. Subsequently, IFs would have been able to access critical resources through inclusion in the Games such as TV money. Therefore, a competitive environment was fostered amongst IFs that led to focus on gaining, or retaining, IOC recognition. This environment, influenced by commercialisation, increased the heterogeneity amongst IFs as it highlighted the difference between being an Olympic or non-Olympic IF, a phenomenon which previously was not immediately visible.

*“Back then there was no such thing as “Olympic” and “non-Olympic. Because in the Olympics back then, a lot of the sports that are in the Olympics now, were not in there back then. So all in all, there really was not such a thing as “us” and “them” as it is today in the sense that “us” is Olympic federations and “them” is non-Olympic federations.”*

*Quote 46- [Interviewee]*



### 4.3. Existing pathways for organising the environment

Thus far, it has been shown that changes in the inner context of a group of organisations, here IFs, result in increased uncertainty, particularly in relation to accessing resources. Also, it has been shown that institutionalised boundaries of power are protected by dominant stakeholders that are able to exercise influence through sustaining, and increasing, resource dependencies. This is supported by exploiting, or inserting, heterogeneity amongst the group of dependant organisations that may mobilise against such a dominant stakeholder. As meta-organisation theory suggests, in such scenarios organisations would seek collective action in order to organise the uncertain aspects of their environment (Ahnre and Brunsson 2008). Nonetheless, meta-organisations are only one form of collective action in order to increase the organisation of the environment (Bres, Raufflet and Boghossian (2017)). Therefore, it is important to examine pre-existing ways through which the concerned organisations could influence their environment. This in turn explains why meta-organisation, in the form of an association, may be sought in order to formalise collective action.

One of the major issues that IFs had was that they did not have adequate representation in important decision-making processes. In other words, the dependant organisations were not able to internally influence dominant stakeholders such as the IOC. As early as the 1950s, both the IFs and the NOCs had realised that they were the organisations that governed the sports and managed the athletes, yet the IOC was the main decision maker with respect to important issues. Therefore, certain IFs as well as NOCs began to voice their concerns and expected that presidents of IFs and NOCs should become ex-officio members of the IOC.

*“In the view that the receipts from the Olympic Games are disposed of under the direction of the I.O.C, and that the Presidents of National Olympic Committees are normally Presidents of National Sports Federations, it is logical and necessary that International Sports Federations should be represented in the International Olympic Committee and that Presidents of all the International Federations recognised for the Olympic Games should be ex officio members of the International Olympic Committee.”*

*Quote 47- IOC Session 1959*

*“In our opinion, these problems still remain to be a rightful and urgent matter at present. Indeed, one cannot accept it as logical that the International Sport Federations which organize and direct amateur sport and conduct their competitions at the Olympic Games, are deprived at the same time of the right to take part in the activities of the body governing the Olympic Games.” IOC Session 1959*

*Quote 48- IOC Session 1959*

However, originally the IOC disagreed with such requests due to several reasons. For example, it claimed that the IOC was to remain an independent organisation within the Movement. Also, IOC argued that not all IFs had suitable candidates for IOC membership. This in itself was reflective of the uncertainties that IFs were facing given that there were no clear criteria on how one could become an IOC member. Consequently, dependant organisations were not able to exercise significant influence on their dominant stakeholders, reducing their capability to organise their uncertain environment.

*“The reason why some countries have no members is because it is often difficult to find men possessing the qualities required to be members. We may not always find suitable persons within all the I. Fs”*

*Quote 49- IOC Session 1961*

*“Concerning the inclusion of ex-officio members on the Committee of the I.O.C., Mr. Brundage declares that the I.O.C. must remain an independent governing body. Its power is restricted by its Charter. Were the proposal tending to the nomination of ex-officio members from the NOC and the I.F. accepted, it would convert the I.O.C. into a Senate composed of more than 200 members, this would be disastrous as it would impede the work of the I.O.C.”*

*Quote 50- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1961*

The historical data indicates that the ways through which IFs could organise their environment and reduce uncertainty were not sufficiently effective. This was mainly because most forums of discussion were directly or indirectly controlled by dominant stakeholders such as the IOC hence IFs were not able to exercise an adequate degree of influence. In order to resolve the debates about the matters discussed above (e.g. the amateurism debate, the distribution of TV money) as well as general issues that IFs were facing (e.g. technical aspects), IFs needed a forum to discuss their problems and find solutions. The initial approach of the IOC was to offer the IFs the opportunity to discuss those matters during the IFs meetings with the IOC.

*“Lord Burghley would like to establish a much closer bond of relationship between the I.F.s and the I.O.C., in order to achieve an increased cohesiveness, conducive to the discussion of the main problems which engross these federations. These problems which are not directly connected with the Olympic Games could be mentioned at the end of the Agenda. The President assures the Assembly that the I.O.C. has no intention to interfere with the affairs of the I.F. its only wish is for a closer cooperation.”*

*Quote 51- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1954*

However, some IFs argued that IFs should have the opportunity to discuss these matters amongst themselves as the IOC was only responsible for Olympic matters whilst IFs had concerns of their own. This issue is further reflective of the complexities related to the boundaries of power as part of which a dominant stakeholder seeks to expand its boundaries of power in order to exercise influence over an entire organisational field.

*“Mr. Mullegg (Rowing), does not question for one instant, that Lord Burghley's proposal is made with the intention of securing a more effective cooperation with the I.F. He however, cannot share Lord Burghley's idea and he is of the opinion that the delegates of the I.F. must be able to discuss in an openhearted manner among themselves. He [Mullegg, Rowing] also refers to the last sentence of the order of saying that the I.O.C. is the directive power of the world sport, while, in reality it only governs Olympic sport.”*

*Quote 52- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1954*

One of the purposes of meta-organisations may be to provide a forum of discussion for members to share knowledge and exchange solutions (Ahrne and Burnsson 2008). This reason was one of the primary motives for IFs to constitute a formal association in order to address their common problems. However, if the need for such forum is, albeit partially, satisfied, progress towards a formalised form of collective action may be affected. The analysis of historical data identified a common pattern in this regard whereby the IOC popularised a solution in order to address the need of IFs for a forum of discussion.

IFs required the ability to collaborate with each other more effectively as they not only had to come to agreements regarding ongoing debates with the IOC (e.g. amateurism, TV money etc) but they also needed to discuss common problems facing all sports (e.g. funding training programmes, developing officials, technical issues, management of major events etc.). The IOC's solution was often to propose the creation of a committee, that would function under the patronage of the IOC, and IFs, or NOCs, could have representatives in such committees. However, in most cases it was the members of the IOC that chaired those committees and therefore other stakeholders, such as IFs, did not have an equal influence. For example, regarding the issue of amateurism, the IOC created an “Eligibility Committee” and tasked it with defining the rules of amateurism. This committee was chair by a senior IOC member.

*“It was further agreed that the Secretary General [IOC] should contact each individual Federation in order to try and bring their constitutions into line with the IOC Rule Book. This would be done in collaboration with the Marquess of Exeter and Mr. Ivar Vind. The final results will be reported to the Commission on Amateurism under the chairmanship of Mr. Hugh Weir [IOC].”*

*Quote 53- IOC Session 1968*

Similarly, regarding the debate over the distribution TV revenues, the IOC created “Joint Commissions”, led by the IOC, in order to construct a distribution policy. Certain IFs disagreed with such an approach and voiced the desire to maintain a direct negotiation with the IOC as they believed that through such committees their influence was marginalised. The IOC also created a TV Advisory Committee to help IFs manage TV related issues even though the IOC itself did not have the necessary expertise to provide consultancy on such matters. In fact, it even asked the IFs to assist the IOC on TV matters where possible. It was noted that the number of IOC-created commissions increased to a point where the IOC itself was not fully clear on what the purpose of some of those commissions was.

*“Messrs. Ahearne and Pain said that their Federations disagreed with the idea of a Joint Commission and insisted on discussing the matter with the IOC at a private meeting.”*

*Quote 54- Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1968*

*“Dr. Käser [FIFA] had been asked to serve on the IOC TV Advisory Committee, and any assistance the IFs could give the IOC on television questions would be appreciated.”*

*Quote 55- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974*

*“Mr Keller [Rowing] asked whether, in future, an IF representative could attend the television negotiations since certain Federations had experience in this field. Lord Killanin pointed out that Dr Käser [FIFA] was already a member of the Television Technical Commission which also included representatives of the television unions.” IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1975*

*Quote 56- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1975*

*“Mr. Keller [Rowing] asked what the situation was regarding the IFs' Committee which was to work with the IOC Finance Commission. Lord Killanin [IOC] replied that he was not certain what the duties of such a joint commission would be.” IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974*

*Quote 57- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1974*

It is observed that the dominant stakeholder in the field effectively institutionalised mechanisms in the organisational field of its dependant organisations in order to disincentivise them from seeking alternative forms of collective action. IFs, as organisations in the same field, faced increased uncertainty, particularly in relation to the distribution of resources, as a result of the change in their organisational environment. However, the part of the environment that is mostly linked to uncertainty was not visibly within their organisational boundaries. Stakeholders that exercise control on that part of the organisational environment continuously sought to maintain the status quo and to not allow change of boundaries. This was supported by establishing dependencies on other organisations in the field.

Also, by exploiting the heterogenous attributes of those organisations as well as internalising organisational processes that could affect existing boundaries, dominant stakeholders aimed to lower the likelihood of formalised collective action by dependant organisations. However, changes in the outer context of the organisational field resulted in interdependencies that enabled the dependant organisations, supported by an effective leadership, to collectively take formal action in order to organise their environment and reduce uncertainty.

#### 4.4. Seeking formalised collection action

According to the documentation of ‘Memorandum on the Creation of a Union of International Sporting Federations’ (GAISF 2017), forming an association of IFs was initially proposed by UCI (Union Cycliste Internationale), the international governing body of cycling. In 1921, UCI made a proposal to group all IFs into one body. This body was originally named “Union Des Federations Internationals Sportives” (U.F.I.S). The broad aim of UFIS was to help to foster the benefits of the cause of sport throughout the world. The initiative was a step towards assertion of the general community of IFs and reinforcing their common aims and interests. In order to achieve this mission, it was proposed that UFIS would pursue the following objectives:

Empowering IFs and reinforcing their unity	Forum of discussion	Event Management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Serve for each of the international federations</li> <li>• Create bonds of lasting friendship between all federations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitating, among other things, a discussion of international relations from a general point of view</li> <li>• Discuss the course to be followed by all members with regard to the Olympic Games</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Promote the organisation of World Championships in each sport, grouping, when desirable, in the same town or country the champions of various sports of kindred nature</li> <li>• Fix the dates of all the great international contests</li> </ul>

Figure 26- Objectives of U.S.I.F

This proposal was sent to 22 Olympic federations that were invited to attend the Constituent Congress that was held in Lausanne, Switzerland in the spring of 1921. Nonetheless, this effort of uniting all federations under one umbrella remained in the shape of a bureau for several decades. This period of tacit transformation was prolonged for 46 years until 1967 when the association was constitutionalised in a form of a structured organisation. Given the scope of the study and the extent of availability of data, the latter 15 years of that period (1952-1967), as well as the period from its creation until present, was investigated in more detail.

Many meta-organisations may start as an international conference or a loose gathering and eventually develop into an advanced organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2010a). Similarly, it can be obtained that the original union of the IFs possessed more of the characteristics of a network rather than an organised association, similar to what Spillman (2017) labels as dinner associations. Also, it can be observed that IFs, as stakeholders with common goals, mobilised to further value the common identity conferred through their association (Rowley and Moldoveanu (2003). Nonetheless, as a result of a multitude of changes within the inner and outer context of IFs, that network eventually, albeit implicitly, was transformed into a formal association.

#### 4.4.1. Interdependencies

When meta-organisations emerge, they incorporate part of the environment of their members into a collectively organised sphere (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). However, the reconfigured environment may have linkages to the environment of non-member organisations that are not part of the new setting (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). Therefore, it is important to consider the role of non-members as they may attempt to preserve the existing organisational boundaries (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). To this point, the historical data was analysed in order to understand the extent to which the organisational field of organisations aiming to mobilise against a dominant stakeholder was prepared for formally organised collective action.

Given that meta-organisations can empower their members in relation to their external environment (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005), it is understandable that dominant stakeholders would act against the mobilisation of stakeholders toward unionising (Butterfield et al. 2004). Analysing archival documents revealed that the IOC, particularly before 1980s and the arrival of Samaranch as its president, did not welcome associations of the stakeholders it interacted with. For example, when International Sport Press Association (AIPS) requested IOC's recognition, certain members of the IOC were hesitant on the matter. The IOC eventually granted recognition to this meta-organisation as they believed a positive rapport with AIPS could enhance their relationship with the media and consequently the coverage of the Games. However, there were still reservations about the extent which AIPS could access the Games.

Nonetheless, as the IOC realised that in order to promote the Movement it needed the support of the media to receive appropriate coverage, the guarding stance against AIPS was softened. This change in position of the IOC in relation to the meta-organisation that was providing important resources to the Movement became visible in the latter years. IOC members later realised that they had not established a satisfactory working relationship with the press and henceforth called for closer collaboration with AIPS whilst some even suggested awarding ex-officio IOC membership to the president of AIPS. The resource that the press was providing the IOC effectively created an interdependency between AIPS and the IOC which in turn supported the recognition process of AIPS and positively impacted the relationship between AIPS and the IOC. Therefore, it was obtained that the organisational environment of IFs was not immediately prepared for the emergence of meta-organisations, such as associations of IFs. However, the development of interdependencies between the dominant and the dependant organisations in the field would aid the process of formalising collective action.

*“The Chairman gives a few particulars concerning this Association which may be useful on occasion to the I.O.C.- After a thorough investigation, the E.B. recommends the recognition of this Association in the list of the federations with an Olympic standing, but it should not be given priority in the distribution of free cards to the press attending the Games, nor should the press be authorized to attend the Sessions of the I.O.C.”*

*Quote 58- IOC Session, 1959*

*“The I.O.C should be interested in popularizing the ideas and aims of the Olympic Movement, as well as in the interpretation of its positions on the main questions of the world sport. Press, Radio and Television can, in this case, render considerable assistance. However, up till now, we have failed to establish proper contacts with the International Association of Sports Press as well as the News Agencies.”*

*Quote 59- IOC Session, 1967*

*“It is proposed that the I.O.C., in order to establish closer contacts with International Sports Federations and International Sport Press Federation, should elect Chairman of the Conference of International Federation and President of International Sports Press Federation as the I.O.C. ex-officio members as it was done in case with President of the Olympic Academy.”*

*Quote 60- IOC Session, 1967*



#### 4.4.2. Institutional influences

As part of the data analysis, the process of creation of the Association of National Olympic Committees (ANOC) was briefly examined. It was revealed that although NOCs co-existence with the IFs in the Movement was often characterised with a competitive relationship, the movement of NOCs toward collective action had an institutional effect on the process of the emergence of the association of IFs.

The NOCs plans to form an association predated the efforts of IFs to form a union (Guttmann 2002). Historical sources have suggested that the movement of NOCs towards creating a union, led by the Giulio Onesti who was the president of the Italian NOC, encouraged IFs to do the same (Senn 1999). Similar to the IFs, NOCs were not content with the boundaries of power in their organisational field as they believed that despite their imperative role in the Movement they had a negligible influence on key decision-making processes. For example, one of the major concerns of the NOCs, which the IFs also shared, was that the IOC did not sufficiently consult the NOCs regarding matters in relation to the programme of the Games and selection of host cities.

*“The present mutual relations between the I.O.C. and National Olympic Committees do not promote the solution of the problems facing the Olympic Movement. We do not take into consideration Olympic committees' opinion, we do not have close contacts with them and, sometimes, we ignore their requests and demands. It should not be forgotten that, without National Olympic Committees, there would be no Olympic Movement, the Olympic Games in the present form and the I.O.C. itself. The I.O.C. does not consider it necessary to consult with N.O.C's on such important questions as the programme of the Olympic Games, dates and place of their holding, etc.”*

*Quote 61- IOC Session, 1967,*

The NOCs argued that the creation of ANOC would not only improve the working relationship of the NOCs with the IOC, but it would also allow the NOCs to share knowledge, exchange information and consequently operate more effectively. It is observed that the changing context of the organisational field of sport had affected all stakeholders. This links to the point raised earlier regarding the intricacies of new organisational environment and gaps in knowledge and expertise. In other words, reshaping the boundaries of power to counter dominant stakeholders is not the only way through which the newly created meta-organisations can reduce uncertainty in the environment of dependant organisations. Sharing knowledge to increase competence and organisational capabilities may also be a fundamental factor in this regard.



As mentioned previously, the institutionalised method for resolving boundary conflicts in the organisational field of sport was the introduction of temporary working groups controlled by dominant stakeholders. As far as ANOC was concerned, the IOC created another committee called “Co-ordinating and Study Committee” tasked with evaluating the necessity for an association for NOCs. In the meantime, the IOC also proposed creation of yet another sub-committee, chaired by IOC members, in order to lead the management of IOC-NOC relationships.

*“In this report the Co-ordinating and Study Committee suggested to the General Assembly that it postpone the decision on the formation of an Association to the next meeting at Mexico City in 1968. The proposed postponement was determined by the news that the I.O.C. intended to set up a Sub-Committee for NOC relations, and that this Sub-Committee was to be officially formed in the course of the 65th IOC Session at Tehran. It is suggested that a President, appointed by the I.O.C., direct a Committee composed of eminent members of those N.O.Cs who have shown themselves to be especially active in the sports field, for the realisation of the aims enumerated.”*

*Quote 62- IOC Session, 1967*

*“The unification of National Olympic Committees in the frame of an association would promote the improvement of the contacts with National Olympic Committees, exchange of their work experience and mutual information, and more effective activities as a whole in the International Olympic Movement.”*

*Quote 63- IOC Session, 1967*

This was the tactic of the dominant stakeholder to negate the dependant organisation’s need for collective action as it offered them a pathway to influence their environment whilst marginalising that influence by placing the forum within their own boundaries of power. One of the most important challenges of meta-organisations in the early stages of their lifecycle is gaining credibility and legitimacy (Ahrne et al. 2016b). Likewise, IOC members emphasised that they did not see any reason for NOCs to have an association and questioned the legitimacy of such a union.

*“The Secretary General [IOC] informed the members of the Executive Board of his discussions with Mr. Onesti in the presence of Mr. de Stefani. Mr. Onesti was informed about the Executive Board's decision of creating a special section for contacts with the N.O.Cs. and, consequently, there is no special need any more for an association of N.O.Cs. Furthermore, Mr. Onesti had been informed that many N.O.Cs. would never join such an association as they preferred to have direct contact with the I.O.C.”*

*Quote 64- IOC Executive Board Meeting, 1967*

*“[Brundage]: association of NOCs is not necessary.”*

*Quote 65- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1967*

*“....it is fully endorsed by the Executive Board of the I.O.C, that any raison d'être for any Association of N.O.C.s does not seem to exist.”*

*Quote 66- IOC Executive Board Meeting, 1967*

One critical difference between IFs and NOCs is that IFs are independent organisations whereas NOCs are agents of the IOC in their respective countries thus they exist by the virtue of the IOC. The IOC emphasised on this point and concluded that ANOC could not be formed as it could duplicate the IOC. It was stated that NOCs main problems relate to financial issues hence the IOC would, similar to previous issues, create a committee led by the IOC members to aid NOCs with financial matters.

*"[Brundage] Gentlemen, I do not want to over-simplify the matter, but it seems to me that somehow these questions have been exaggerated and I cannot see where and how an Association of NOCs can be of special help."*

*Quote 67- IOC Session 1968*

*"In any event, there is no possibility of forming such an association that would be complete and representative because of the violent difference of opinion if not for any other reason. Since the NOCs are agents of the IOC and exist only by virtue of its recognition, an independent organisation is really unthinkable. "*

*Quote 68- IOC Session, 1968*

*"A decision on the future of the Study and Co-ordinating Committee will be taken in Mexico-City. The Chairman, Mr. Onesti, had promised Mr. Brundage to wind up this Committee since its terms of reference (to study the necessity of an associations of NOCs) were no longer valid and most NOCs preferred to have a direct contact with the IOC Secretariat."*

*Quote 69- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1968*

*"It was agreed that the NOCs greatest problem was a financial one and that the IOC should therefore support the NOCs in this matter by advising them on the best way to build up funds. It was suggested that a special Commission could be set up to deal with this problem."*

*Quote 70- IOC Executive Board Meeting, 1968*

Although ANOC was not officially recognised by the IOC until 1980s, the movement of NOCs, a group of dependant organisations operating in the same organisational field as IFs, toward collective action encouraged IFs to pursue a union of their own (Senn 1999). In other words, as one dependant group of organisations seeks collective action in order to manage uncertainty in their environment, seeking collective action may gain further legitimacy hence other dependant organisations in the same field may follow suit as a result of such institutional influence.

## 4.5. Formation

### 4.5.1. Seeking legitimacy

Thus far, the analysis of changes in the organisational environment of IFs has shown that in order to manage uncertainty and dependencies, IFs aimed to formalise their collective action. There was already loose a network (i.e. UFIS) and also the act of unionising was being legitimised by other organisations in the field (e.g. NOCs and ANOC). However, dominant stakeholders (i.e. IOC) as well as dependant organisations that competed for the same resources (i.e. NOCs) were against a formal association of IFs as this meant distortion of boundaries and empowering IFs.

GAISF, originally titled GAIF (General Assembly of International Federations) did not emerge as a formal union of IFs until 1967, when IFs organised their first meeting as a union whilst informing the IOC about their decision to form an association. As meta-organisation theory suggests, early struggles of meta-organisations may be a lack of legitimacy and an inability to recruit resourceful members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). This was found to be case for GAIF as IOC refused to recognise GAIF because not all Olympic IFs, mainly IAAF and FIFA were its members.

*“Recently, in Lausanne, several International Sport Federations met and formed a kind of association of which Mr. Phillips (Australia, International Swimming Federation) and Mr. Coulon (France, International Wrestling Federation) were elected President and Secretary General.”*

*Quote 71- IOC Session, 1967*

*“After a general discussion in which all members took part, the Executive Board declared itself unable to recognise an association of International Federations in which not all of the 26 International Sports Federations were gathered, and in which other bodies, not recognised by the IOC were members.”*

*Quote 72- IOC Executive Board Meeting, 1967*

Furthermore, the issue of organisational boundaries was observed once more. The IOC claimed that the IFs, and their proposed association, were planning to address matters that the IOC considered be of IOC’s concern. NOCs were not in favour of GAIF either particularly given that their own efforts to have a formal association were challenged by the IOC. Such contrasting views on the concept of collective action within the same field could be explained by resource dynamics of the field. Given that NOCs were competing for the same resources as IFs (e.g. TV revenues), they campaigned against GAIF although their own association was being considered as unnecessary and as a threat to the IOC.

Moreover, heterogeneity in terms of organisational interests were identified as another challenge for GAIF. Certain IFs, given the negative stance of the dominant stakeholder, distanced themselves from GAIF. This is in line with suggestions of meta-organisation theory in the sense that increased heterogeneity amongst members weakens the meta-organisation (Ahrne and Brunsson 2011).

*“They had sent a letter dealing with matters which are not of their competence and only the concern of the I.O.C. The letter was signed by the Presidents of 16 International Federations being included in the Olympic Games, amongst which are even members of the I.O.C.”*

*Quote 73- IOC Session, 1967*

*“Mr. Onesti proposed that the ISFs be reminded that the IOC and the NOCs are prepared to recognize, support and back up the technical role which the International Federations play, but oppose all requests and vindications which fall outside the competences of the ISFs”*

*Quote 74- IOC Session, 1968*

*“The ISFs seem to forget that they are an offshoot of the National Federations and consequently it is up to the National Federations to decide on the nature of the activities and the persons of the leaders of those ISFs. Since the National Federations are represented in the National Olympic Committees, it is the NOCs and the National Federations who have always borne the material charges of the Olympic participation and therefore it is wrong to suppose that the NOCs occupy a secondary position.”*

*Quote 75- IOC Session, 1968*

*“It was further said that the foundling of an official Association of International Sport Federations (G.A.I.F.) as indicated in the letter, was not agreed upon and that the International Ski Federation preferred to stay in direct contact with the I.O.C., as it was before.”*

*Quote 76- IOC Session, 1967*

*“Mr. Hodler (Switzerland), President of the International Ski Federation, informed the assembly that, although a group of Federations wished to form an association of IFs with an executive board, this had been avoided since the majority of the IFs preferred to maintain a direct contact with the IOC and only regarded the meeting of the Federations amongst themselves as a platform to discuss matters of general interest. Nevertheless, certain representatives persist in the desire to form a super-federation.”*

*Quote 77- IOC Session, 1968*

#### 4.5.2. Counterinfluences

As mentioned in earlier in the chapter, the outer context of IFs also played an important role in shaping the trajectory path of GAIF. The two main changes identified in the outer context related to socio-political matters and socio-economic problems. Given that these changes were externally imposed, the subsequent difficulties were mostly absorbed by dominant organisations in the field as they were perceived to be responsible social actors, particularly considering the boundaries that they themselves had institutionalised in the field. Similar to how meta-organisations such as AIPS were able to benefit from resource interdependencies, IFs were able to exercise increased influence as they were able to provide resources to dominant stakeholders in order to minimise the impact of socio-political and socio-economic problems.

Historians have maintained that the resurrection of the Games in the modern era was chiefly empowered by a socio-political movement, therefore political visions were inherently institutionalised in major international sporting events (Guttmann 2002). As a result, politics had become a discreet yet integral part of the Games and the organisational field of sport (Senn 1999). Therefore, the IOC was in fact in need of the help of all stakeholders of the movement to battle politics out of the Games. Given that IFs, as well as the NOCs, were the organisations that governed sports and had influence on national organisations they were able to take action against political interferences more effectively

*“...for never has a city made a profit in organizing the Olympic Games.”*

*Quote 78- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1966*

*“The I.O.C. has been criticised by many people, organizations and the press. It said that the I.O.C. is out of step with the present time.”*

*Quote 79- IOC Session, 1967*

*“Mr. Brundage cited the example of the 1972 Games for which three candidatures had been withdrawn for financial reasons.”*

*Quote 80- IOC Session, 1966*

*“The cost of organising the Games has escalated prodigiously, which undoubtedly accounts for the very large reduction in the number of cities applying to stage them.”*

*Quote 81- IOC Session 1967*

As mentioned previously, one of the main concerns of the IFs, and the NOCs, was in relation to the programme of the Games and how the event was organised. IFs argued that although they were the governing bodies of the sports forming the Games, they were not consulted adequately regarding important issues such as technical matters, the programme of the Games and the selection of host cities. Given the increasing pressure on the IOC due to the economics of the Games, the IOC expressed its need for technical assistance and therefore IFs were able to provide resources (e.g. in form of technical expertise). This allowed the dependant organisations to generate further interdependencies of resources between themselves and the dominant stakeholder and exercise influence.

*“Before we begin our deliberations here today, ladies and gentlemen, it is my painful duty to inform you that the Olympic Games are in trouble, in serious trouble. We need your help.”*

*Quote 82- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs, 1970*

*“It has also been repeatedly said that the Games have become too large and too expensive and that, as a penalty for the enormous success, they have become subject to increasing political and commercial interference. This was in the largest and the richest city of Switzerland, a country of winter sport, where we maintain our headquarters and the citizens voted against the Games more than three and one-half to one. Everyone in this room must be concerned!”*

*Quote 83- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs, 1970*

*“The Olympics actually needed GAIFS, needed Keller and the collaboration to survive” [1]*

*Quote 84- [Interviewee]*

#### 4.5.3. Changing boundaries

Having the awareness of the possibility to mobilise as well as having the continuous willingness to do so is key to achieving collective action (Rowley and Berman 2004). These traits were observed in the movement of the IFs given that despite initial challenges in the early stages of GAIF’s lifecycle, notably legitimacy and the ability to recruit strong members (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008), IFs continued their movement. Although the emergence of this meta-organisation conflicted with the interest of other stakeholders in the field, due to the development of interdependencies the pressure against the meta-organisation was temporarily relieved. During this period the meta-organisation was able to enhance its legitimacy and establish reciprocal relationships with other stakeholders.

Although influencing the institutionalised boundaries of power in the field was noted as one of the primary motives of the IFs movements towards collective action, it was learnt that the meta-organisation had a purpose wider than taking a lead for negotiations with dominant stakeholders. As mentioned before, GAIF was arguably the transformation of the IFs existing network into a formal organisation. Hence, the early aims of GAIF were not too dissimilar to those of UFIS, which was to provide a forum for IFs to discuss their common problems and share solutions. Particularly given that the number of sports, organisations governing sports and sectors supplying resources to the field were proliferating, there was a clear need for better collaboration amongst all parties. Membership was also voluntary and GAIF did not pressure any IF to join.

*“Rule\_14 - Associations of IFs: The IOC recognises the existence of the General Association of IFs and the associations within which are assembled the IFs governing the sports either on the programme of the Olympic Games, or on that of the Winter Games. Rule\_15 - Right of the NOCs and IFs: The existence of the associations of NOCs and IFs does not in any way diminish the right of each NOC and each IF to deal directly with the IOC.”*

*Quote 85- IOC Session 1979*

*“So at the beginning it was just a general collaborative initiative. International sport federations needed an umbrella organisations to talk and collaborate through. The idea was to start a better cooperation, communication amongst international sport federations.”*

*Quote 86- Interviewee*

*“And one of the main aspects was related to the calendar, as in the sporting calendar. Because TV back then was not like TV today, and there was very little satellite coverage, so there was minimal linkage between sport events. There was a need for a broader collaboration amongst the sporting bodies so they could collaborate and plan their events and prepare a calendar that would ensure their events would not take place around the same time or location. The primary motive behind the creation of this association was to unify the federations, specifically because of the calendar.” Interviewee*

*Quote 87- Interviewee*

*“Mr Keller wished to know if there had been any change regarding the holding of the Games of the XXIIIrd Olympiad in Los Angeles. He wished to have information on this subject, because the IFs were influenced by the venue for the Games when choosing sites for world championships - if the Games were held in America, then the world championships would be held in Europe or another continent, but the policy was not to hold both the Games and the world championships in the same continent.”*

*Quote 88 - IOC Executive Board Meeting, 1980*

*“Recalling the situation in Rome 1966 when the International Boxing Federation and its President, Col. Rüssel voluntarily took on the task of making an annual sports calendar and of calling for an unofficial meeting of the International Sport Federations, Mr. Hodler stated that the Lausanne meeting was called to discuss common problems of the International Federations on advertisements and television problems.”*

*Quote 89 IOC Session, 1967*

*“The group of IFs is not a super-federation; entire freedom and independence is left to the IFs as far as the taking of decisions is concerned.”*

*Quote 90- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs, 1968*

*“Mr. Keller pointed out that seventeen International Federations felt the necessity for forming a combined body to make the work towards international sport more efficient.”*

*Quote 91- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs, 1969*

By 1976, however, the association developed into a more formal and constitutionalised organisation. Furthermore, with the support of the Monégasque government, it secured a permanent headquarters in Monaco. Also, it was able to acquire funding to recruit paid staff and have a permanent secretariat. This highlights the importance of establishing strategic relationships with stakeholders that can provide critical resources at certain lifecycle stages

*“So after conversations with Keller, Charles Palmer of Judo and other federations, it was agreed that it was sensible to change the constitution, have a permanent secretariat, permanent office. We met with principles of Monaco, in Monte Carlo, where they offered us an office. They were trying to promote themselves as a sporting centre. In 1976 I found sufficient money, plus the relationship with the Monégasque government, I managed to secure permanent head office, permanent headquarters and turn it into a permanent entity. I put funding together so we could fund the organisation, the salaries, particularly the salary of Mr Luke Niggley who was the first paid general secretary. So basically in 1976, this association became a proper organisation, with proper structure.”*

*Quote 92- [Interviewee]*

*“Mr. Palmer (IJF) pointed out that before GAIF was formed the IOC never convened meetings for the IFs amongst themselves.”*

*Quote 93- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1977*



After becoming a formally constitutionalised organisation, the newly created meta-organisation was able to exercise influence in the organisational environment of its members and protect their interest. For example, as far as the issue of amateurism was concerned, GAIF, with the presidency of Thomas Keller from the IF of rowing, was able to resolve the problem for IFs. So in early the 1980s, the IOC finally admitted that it could no longer truly enforce the amateurism code hence conceded the authority on this regard to IFs, allowing each IF to have its own eligibility rules. GAIF was able to support IFs in this regard by highlighting that if each IFs sent amateur athletes to the Games, the quality of the event would suffer. This signified another example of where interdependency was effectively leveraged, given that critical resources (i.e. elite athletes) were supplied by IFs to the IOC.

*"[IOC] The truth is that in these team sports which have become commercialized, even with the best of good intentions, it is impossible to assemble an amateur team of Olympic calibre. It cannot be done. The public can be fooled no longer and we should stop trying to fool ourselves. We are attempting the impossible."*

*Quote 94- IOC Executive Board Meeting with International Federations 1970*

*"[Keller] You are attacking different Federations because of amateur scandals yet this state of affairs has generally been known for a long time yet it has been tolerated by the IOC. Why now suddenly such drastic actions?"*

*Quote 95- IOC Executive Board Meeting with International Federations 1970*

*"This may in the long run result in "second rate" competitors coming to the Games!"*

*Quote 96- IOC Session 1976*

*"On the occasion of the XIth Olympic Congress In Baden-Baden, we wisely recognised the fact that It had become Impossible to enact one eligibility rule which would apply to everyone equally and uniformly, to all sports and sportsmen, due to the enormous differences which exist between them, In both development and/or organisation. Each International Federation had then been asked to propose its own eligibility rules which were submitted for our approval."*

*Quote 97- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1986*

Similarly, regarding the issues related to broadcasting and TV revenues, GAIF with the leadership of Keller led the debate with the IOC in order to preserve the interest of the IFs. GAIF was able to increase the share of IFs in TV revenues, promote consensus amongst IFs and also provide them a platform to not only discuss common problem amongst themselves, but also to access knowledge and expertise from technical experts in the wider industry.

*“Mr. Keller mentioned a suggestion that NOCs did not have such a need for funds as the IFs and this should be taken into account with regard to the repartition of funds. He thought one third of the whole would be suitable. Mr. Pain considered this too much and preferred the prior arrangement of one third for the first million, 2/9 for the second and 1/9 for the anything over this.”*

*Quote 98- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1969*

*The IOC Executive Board agreed in principle with the proposals of the IFs regarding the distribution of television rights, that the first 50% (up to a maximum of US \$ 1,000,000) of the television receipts available for distribution amongst the IFs to be divided equally amongst the IFs participating in the Olympic Games.”*

*Quote 99- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1970*

*“Mr. Keller (FISA) confirmed that the distribution key had been settled by the International Federations, which were all in agreement regarding the Montreal receipts. The IAAF would receive 20% of the total and the other Federations 4% each.”*

*Quote 100- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1975*

*“From earlier on back in 1976, every year we organised a conference in Monaco, alongside the Assembly. We called it the Calendar Congress. We had a 2-3 day event, not too dissimilar to what happens today, so we had commercial partners, sponsors, broadcasters such as ABC, NBC, CBS.”*

*Quote 111- [Interviewee]*

*“The Chairman read a telegram from President Nixon wishing every success to the GAIF meeting.”*

*Quote 102- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1973*

GAIF was also able to influence the field in terms of indirect resources. As mentioned before, one of the peculiarities that IFs faced was that there was not a clear criteria on how IFs could get recognised or how to they could join the Olympic programme. GAIF promoted the role of non-Olympic IFs in the field and also campaigned for establishing clear guidelines on recognition and Olympic inclusion. Through these activities, the meta-organisation was able to insert further organisation into the environment of its members.

*“Mr. Keller stated the decision reached by the IFs at their meeting of 31st May: “All IFs recognized by the IOC, whose rules are accepted and fulfil the conditions laid down by the IOC, should have the right to participate in all Olympic Games.”*

*Quote 102- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1969*

*“Some of the International Federations that are not included in the Olympic Programme would like to discuss their problems with the Executive Board.”*

*Quote 103- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1970*

*“Mr. Keller had raised the question of standards regulating the inclusion of sports in the Olympic programme. Next December, the Programme Commission would present criteria to the Executive Board. Lord Exeter supported this point of view.”*

*Quote 104- IOC Session 1973*

*“Mr Keller [Rowing] thought the IOC should issue guidelines for those sports who would like recognition and how they should proceed”.*

*Quote 105- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1973*

## 4.6. Restoration of boundaries: the role of non-members

After GAISF's establishment as an important organisation in the field, various stakeholders reacted to its emergence differently. Those IFs that were in favour of the independence of IFs supported the meta-organisations. On the other hand, IFs that had a closer allegiance with dominant stakeholders such as the IOC remained outside of the meta-organisation. Such contrast exemplifies the scenarios where organisations prioritise their strategic relationships based on the potential cost-benefit trade-off, considering that membership in one association may conflict with membership in another association (Broome 2006). Meta-organisation theory suggests that members that are more resourceful than the meta-organisation tend to need the membership the least (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). This was observed in the case of GAISF as well since initially strong IFs such as FIFA refrained from joining any association of IFs. Despite the fact that a divergence of position in relation GAISF did exist amongst IFs, it was clear that GAISF had become an important organisation that had empowered IFs. Effectively, that translated into a distortion of boundaries of power given that contrary to *ante* GAISF, dependant organisations were able to influence their environment more effectively.

*"The first point put forward by Mr. Ahearne [Ice Hockey] was the position of those International Federations who were not members of the GAIF. During the meeting that morning of the IOC Executive Board with the representatives of the International Federations, the President of the GAIF had continually said he was talking on behalf of the Federations."*

*Quote 106- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1972*

*"He [IOC Director] explained that the FIFA was no longer a member of the GAISF, nor was it a member of the ASOIF, and it did not agree with the distribution of television rights' revenues."*

*Quote 107- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1985*

*"GAIF became an important body. We did really envision how big GAIF was gonno get."*

*Quote 108- [Interviewee]*

When organisations mobilise against dominant stakeholders, it is expected that the target organisations would react in order to maintain the existing dependencies (Butterfield, Reed and Lemak 2004). Organisational characteristics of meta-organisations offer both opportunities and threats as they have both strengths and weaknesses (McIntyre 2009). It was discovered that target organisations may exploit weaknesses of meta-organisations, such as heterogeneity amongst members, in order to marginalise the meta-organisation. As far as GAISF was concerned, it was learnt that dominant stakeholders such as the IOC exploited the heterogeneity amongst GAISF members in order to break up the main meta-organisation into a number of smaller meta-organisations, which is reflective of the notion of “divide and conquer” (Posner, Spier and Vermeule 2010). Also, by inserting agency into each of these spin-off meta-organisations it was ensued that the interest of each individual meta-organisation is further aligned with of the dominant stakeholder, similar to board interlocks in firms (Drees and Heugens 2013).

#### 4.6.1. Divide and conquer: spin-off meta-organisations

After GAISF established its presence in its organisational field, its president Keller became even more vocal about the independence of the IFs. After a series of debates with the IOC over a number of issues including distribution of TV money, Keller placed further emphasis on why IFs should attempt to be less dependent on IOC-distributed revenues and instead should focus on generating revenues from their own events, such as world championships. The boundaries had already been distorted and such views from the leader of GAISF promoted the IOC to react strategically. The restoration of boundaries and marginalisation of GAISF was strategised by the IOC during the reign of Samaranch. Although the IOC maintained a positive relationship with the IFs, it exploited the diversity of interest amongst them in order to diminish the influence of GAISF.

*“[Keller] It would, perhaps, be better to become more orientated towards the world championships. This would at least be a possibility to be examined for the future, as far as some IFs were concerned. Previously, all IFs had wanted to take part in the Games, but there was a growing trend to change the emphasis and move away from the Olympic Games. The Games were costly for the IFs and the world championships were considered to have several advantages in this connection.”*

*Quote 109- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1980*

*“At the very beginning of Samaranch’s reign, he wanted to make sure, that the IOC controlled the situation. He realised that GAISF was becoming too strong and he wanted the IOC to control things He did not see any room for a GAIF or any other entity that could interrupt the desire of IOC becoming the chief organisation controlling all sports.”*

*Quote 110- [Interviewee]*

*“The President [Samaranch] concluded by thanking Mr. Keller, President of the GAISF, for his assistance and added that he would always need his help and the understanding and friendship of all the IFs.”*

*Quote 111- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1981*

In 1981, winter IFs expressed their desire to form an association of their own. As mentioned before, historically the IOC was very much against the formation of associations of IFs or NOCs. However, during the reign of Samaranch, not only was the IOC against such development, it was proactively supportive of it, calling for recognition of the newly formed association as soon as possible. Later in 1981, Samaranch announced that the assembly of winter sports IFs had obtained the approval of Keller and also had been provisionally recognised by the IOC, pending receipt of its statutes. The statutes were provided in 1982 and were later approved by the IOC.

*“In Monte Carlo, the President of the IOC had stated that it might be possible for the IOC to recognise an assembly of the Winter IFs. The President supported the idea of the creation of such an assembly, especially with respect to the nomination of members of IOC Commissions.”*

*Quote 112- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1981*

*“Five out of the six Winter IFs were presently members of GAISF, and Mr. Keller, President of GAISF, was aware that the Winter IFs wished to create their own assembly. [Mr Hodler, Ski] This body would be separate from GAISF, which, he added, included some Federations which were not involved with sport as such. The Winter IFs therefore wished to have their own organisation, in order to nominate their own members on IOC Commissions, which were, at present, being designated by GAISF.”*

*Quote 113- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1981*

*“The President was of the opinion that this Assembly would be beneficial to the IOC, and believed that the Executive Board should grant it provisional recognition, which could be ratified at the next Session of the IOC in Rome in May 1982.”*

*Quote 114- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1981*

Winter IFs claimed that GAISF was too large hence they received a small representation in the meetings. They also encouraged the IFs of summer sports to do the same and form their own association. After the association of winter IFs, AIOWF, was recognised by the IOC, the institutional effect paved the foundation for an association of summer IFs. Similar to the case of AIOWF, it was the IOC that promoted the idea of forming an association of IFs involved in the summer Games. The note that Samaranch was proactively looking to set up the smaller meta-organisations is reflected in the historical data in several occasions. When IOC members or IFs raised concerns about the exact purpose of the smaller associations or their detailed statutes, Samaranch emphasised that those issues could be resolved later and the focus was to be placed on forming and recognising the smaller meta-organisations. Subsequently, an association of summer IFs, ASOIF, was formed in 1982.

*“Mr. Hodler [Ski] suggested that the Summer Federations should also have a similar kind of association. In reply to Mr. Kiyokawa, Mr. Hodler stated that he was unable to define the relationship this new association would have with the GAISF as there were still many difficulties to be solved. Mr. Sabetzki (IIHF) pointed out that Federations such as his were not content with their membership of the GAISF alone, as the Federation was a large one but had only a very small representation within the 70 members of GAISF. Mr. Poulsen (Skating) stressed that the Assembly would remain completely independent of the GAISF.”*

*Quote 115- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1981*

*“It was further proposed that all possible steps be taken to initiate the institution of an International Organisation of all Federations with sports on the programme of the summer Games providing a direct channel between the IOC and these IFs. Furthermore, contacts the President had had with the most important IFs would indicate that they were in favour of the organisation of an Association of IFs with sports in the summer Games.”*

*Quote 116- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1982*

*MR. CSANADI [IOC] wondered what would happen to those recognised IFs who followed the IOC's criteria and principles. THE PRESIDENT replied that a solution to this problem would be found in the future. At present, the main aim was for the Association of IFs for summer sports to be recognised.”*

*Quote 117- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1982*

Given that GAISF had started to further support IFs that were not part of the Olympic programme, non-Olympic IFs had a close relationship with GAISF. However, following the creation of AIOWF and ASOIF, Samaranch addressed the issue of IOC-recognised IFs, previously raised by other IOC directors. In 1984, ARISF, the association of IOC-recognised IFs, requested IOC recognition. The Games was of common interest for both the IOC and IFs. Therefore, at the very least, through the Games the IOC had a relationship with Olympic IFs. Formation of associations of Olympic IFs mainly reconfigured the dynamics of that organisational relationships. However, as far as the IOC and non-Olympic IFs were concerned, such direct connection driven by common interest did not exist. As a result, Samaranch stressed the need to create a direct channel between the IOC and recognised IFs, leading to recognition of ARISF. Certain IOC directors were concerned about the emergence of yet another association of IFs and were unsure about the merits behind such group. Nevertheless, similar to the cases of AIOWF and ASOIF, it was decided to recognise ARISF.

*“THE PRESIDENT recalled that the IOC had recently officially recognised the International Assembly of Winter Sports Federations followed by the Association of Summer Olympic International Federations, and that there was now a third association seeking the IOC's recognition: the Association of the IOC Recognised International Sports Federations (ARISF).”*

*Quote 118- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1984*

*“MR. SIPERCO [IOC] wished to express some doubts as to the wisdom of simply recognising yet another association without reservation.”*

*Quote 119- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1984*

*They suffocated GAIF and made it split into smaller bodies.”*

*Quote 120- Interviewee*

*“The success of sport throughout the world, MR. NEBILOLO felt that it was thanks to the President and also to the Director that such progress had been made. THE PRESIDENT expressed his gratitude to Mr. Nebiolo for his words and thanked the Director and Secretariat for their work in preparing the meeting. He was also grateful to the IFs for attending.”*

*Quote 121- IOC Executive Board Meeting with IFs 1983*



## The Samaranch Effect: Divide and Conquer

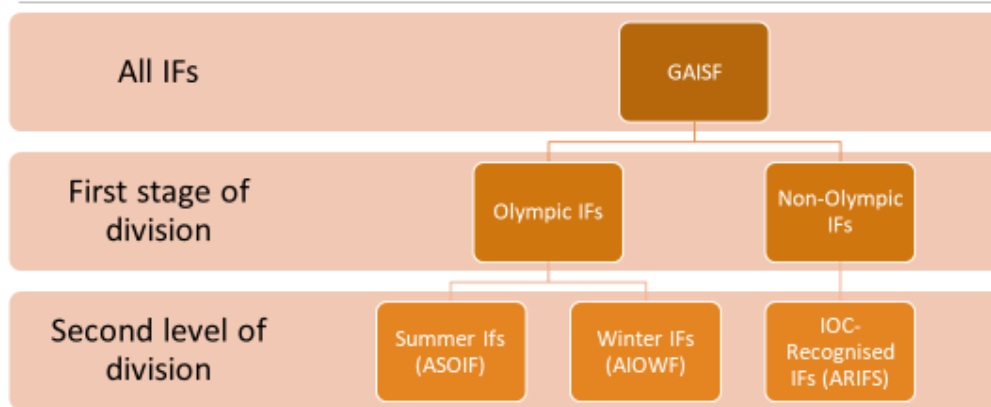


Figure 27 – Meta-organisation is split into smaller and more homogenous meta-organisations

As far as non-Olympic IFs were concerned, the IOC promoted competitive behaviour as part of which IFs were competing against each other in order to be included in the Olympic programme. Therefore, a close relationship with the IOC was critical for non-Olympic IFs with Olympic ambitions, given that Olympic inclusions would translate to access to significant resources (e.g. TV money). As a result, the IOC promoted Un Yong Kim, the president of the IF of Taekwondo, to the presidency of ARISF in order to ensure non-Olympic IFs are also governed in line with IOC interests.

*“He [the IOC president] therefore asked the Executive Board members to recognise the ARISF which would have as its President Mr. Un Yong Kim, President of the World Taekwondo Federation (WTF).”*

Quote 122- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1983

*“So when Keller was moved out of GAIF and Un-Yong Kim took over, the organisation was pretty much controlled. He [i.e. Samaranch] used Primo Nebilio, the president of IAAF, pretty much as his man to help break things up within GAIF. So they pushed in Un-Yong Kim who had his own ambitions to be a big man in the Olympics, and he also wanted to have Taekwondo in the Olympics. For many years it [GAISF] was run for Un-Yong Kim.”*

Quote 123- [Interviewee]

The tactic of inserting agency into organisations that may influence the environment against the interests of the IOC was previously observed, particularly with the practice of creating ad-hoc commissions. This tactic would be also used in the future. As other important organisations were created in the field of sports, the IOC ensured those organisations were led by individuals close to the IOC. World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA) and Court of Arbitration for Sport (CAS) were prime examples of this. When these organisations were created, the IOC supported the appointment individuals who shared interests with the IOC, allowing the IOC to control the most influential organisations in the field. [hence not a disadvantage for meta-organisations only as dominant stakeholders can control the field like this]

*“So that’s why it was through the IOC that WADA and CAS were formed. CAS is still run by John Coats, vice-president of the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and is the current president of the Australian Olympic Committee and chairman of the Australian Olympic Foundation. Craig Reddie running WADA, who is a former Chairman of the British Olympic Association and a Vice-President of and a serving representative on the International Olympic Committee. So all of that activity was done to keep the power base in the hands of the IOC.”*

*Quote 124- [Interviewee]*

#### 4.6.2. Reconfiguring the organisational processes

The rising prominence of smaller associations of IFs was accompanied with the decline of GAISF. The support for Keller was also comprised. It was stated that most of the proposals that were put forward by Keller had been rejected and some IFs were considering withdrawing from GAISF. It was noted that some groups of IFs, such as winter IFs, had already formed their own association and did not see the value in being a member of GAISF.

*“Most of the proposals put forward by Mr. Keller had been rejected. Some Federations were considering withdrawal from the association. The winter IFs had already formed their own association, and the summer IFs were also creating their own.”*

*Quote 125- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1983*

Archival data indicate that following the creation of smaller groups of IFs, the role of GAISF was relatively marginalised. Previously, GAISF was able to unite IFs and protect their interests by influencing the decision making on important issues such as amateurism, the distribution of TV money and the programme of the Games. Most of those dialogues, however, were eventually transferred from GAISF to the smaller association of IFs. For instance, the IOC used to be critical of GAISF work regarding its meeting with future host cities. Nonetheless, it proactively encouraged ASOIF to work with host cities and, for instance, tasked it with conducting a technical survey of the candidatures. Similarly, issues relating to the commission of athletes, the expenses of judges and technical officials as well as the distribution of TV money began to be addressed by ASOIF and AIOWF rather than GAISF.

*THE ASOIF WAS ASKED TO CONDUCT COMPREHENSIVE TECHNICAL SURVEYS OF ALL THE SIX CANDIDATURES WHO ARE SEEKING TO STAGE THE 1992 SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES."*

*Quote 126 - IOC Session 1985*

*"For both Olympic Games in 1988 the financial procedure for the foreign judges and referees created concern. In negotiations between the Administrateur délégué, the Secretaries General of the Association of Summer, respectively Winter IFs as liaison, and the Sports Director, a system has been found which is most practical and able to avoid past problems."*

*Quote 127- IOC Session 1988*

Furthermore, these smaller associations engaged with various goodwill initiatives in order to strengthen their ties with the IOC. For instance, AIOWF provided a number of gifts and donations to the various IOC projects such as construction of the Olympic Museum. At the same time that AIOWF was able to provide such notable donations, GAISF had to enquire about funding from Olympic Solidarity in order to cover the cost of publication for a number educational courses it had designed for IFs.

*"[IOC Member] I would like in particular to thank the Association of Winter Sports Federations and its President, our Colleague Marc Hodler, for making the IOC a gift of the marble for the portico which adorns the entrance to the new building and gives the whole a particular distinction."*

*Quote 128- IOC Session 1985*

*"THE PRESIDENT explained that the Association of Winter Federations had donated US \$2,500,000 from the revenue which they had gained from television rights payments during the XVth Olympic Winter Games."*

*Quote 129- IOC Session 1989*

*"In Seoul, meeting with Mr. Luc NIGGLI, Secretary General of GAISF, who presented a document regarding the organisation of courses by the International Federations. Mr. NIGGLI wished to know if Olympic Solidarity was in a position to give financial aid towards the costs of publication."*

*Quote 130- IOC Executive Board Meeting 1985*

During the 1980s, the IOC established closer links with Olympic IFs through creating ASOIF and AIOWF. However, Olympic IFs were already influenced by the IOC through various means, most notably their dependence on the IOC resources. IOC's work on establishing closer links with non-Olympic IFs further reduced the influence of GAISF. In the 1990s, the IOC focused more on its reciprocal relationship with associations such as ARISF. For instance, the IOC approved the provision of various subsidies to ARISF, ranging from \$10,000 annual subsidies to \$100,000 development programmes.

*"The IOC's support to the recognized IFs takes various forms: Annual subsidy of US\$ 10,000, paying towards the travel costs for the president of each federation in Sydney for the meeting in April 1998 (aid of US\$ 2,000), providing an "IOC President's Trophy" each year for a major competition."*

*Quote 131- IOC Session 1999*

*"It is worth remembering that the IOC makes the sizeable contribution of US\$ 10,000 per year to each recognized IF, and that a development programme worth US\$ 100,000 per year has been set up between the ARISF and Olympic Solidarity."*

*Quote 132- IOC Session 2000*

*"THE SPORTS DIRECTOR [IOC] replied that a Recognised Federation would receive a grant from the IOC."*

*Quote 133- IOC Session 2004*

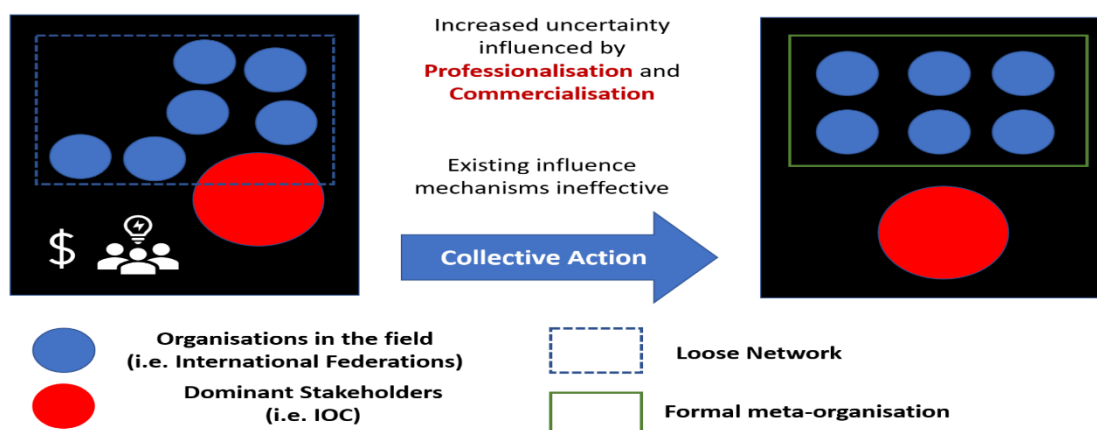
*"The IOC continues to enjoy a very good relationship with ARISF, and during the May 2001 meeting of the IOC Executive Board, it was agreed that IOC representatives would meet with ARISF each year during the ARISF Annual General Meeting."*

*Quote 134- IOC Session 2001*

## 4.7. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present and discuss the key findings emergent from the retrospective phase of data collection. The findings present in this chapter mostly related to the research questions about the reasons, and process of, the emergence of meta-organisations and The findings show that professionalisation and commercialisation were the two major stimulants that impacted the inner context of IFs. Professionalisation of the organisational field of sport was observed across all three streams of professionalisation (i.e. organisational, systematic and occupational). The process of professionalisation was chiefly influenced by the rise of commercialisation in sport. These two major processes had a notable impact on the environment of the IFs. However, given the blurry boundaries of power, IFs were not able to manage their environments effectively due to the pressures of dominant stakeholders in the field, such as the IOC. IFs had series of debates with the IOC across a range of topics, the most important one of which was about distribution TV money. Nevertheless, commercialisation and professionalisation entailed other challenges for the IFs as well. IFs lack experience and expertise in order to manage new processes such as arranging commercial agreements related to broadcast rights, tax as well as event planning optimisation. Therefore, there was even a greater need for the IFs to act collectively to manage their changing environments. Eventually, IFs transformed a loose network (i.e. USIF) into a formal organisation and were able to influence their environment. However, non-members such as the IOC witnessed distortion of boundaries of power, reacted to the emergence of this new meta-organisation. By inserting agency into the meta-organisation as well as splitting the GAISF into smaller but more homogenous meta-organisations (i.e. figure 27), they restored the boundaries of power and marginalised GAISF.

Figure 28- Emergence of the meta-organisation into its organisational field



## Chapter 5: Findings and discussion (2)



## 5.2. Lifecycle Review

The previous chapter discussed the analysed data from the retrospective phase of the research. It was shown why and how meta-organisations in sport may emerge. It was learnt that changes in the inner context of the organisations in the field results in uncertainty (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Also, based on institutionalised boundaries of power, resource dependencies may be established (Santos and Eisenhardt 2005). As a result, dependant organisations with common goals, threats and legal concerns as well as shared economic interests, visions and organisational objectives motivates them to mobilise against dominant organisations (Butterfield, Reed and Lemak 2004). From an alternative perspective, it is maintained that principals in the organisational field took collective action through formal organisation in order to reduce monitoring costs pertaining to agents (Hill and Jones 1992). Moreover, the importance of gaining increased legitimacy, reinforcing organisational identity and the need to share knowledge in order to address the expertise gap stimulated the movement of dependant IFs towards organising their environment through a meta-organisation. Nonetheless, as the new meta-organisation distorted the boundaries of power, dominant stakeholders reacted to this change in the field. By exploiting organisational weaknesses of the meta-organisation, mainly the heterogeneity of membership, as well as inserting agency into the proxy meta-organisations, boundaries of power were restored.

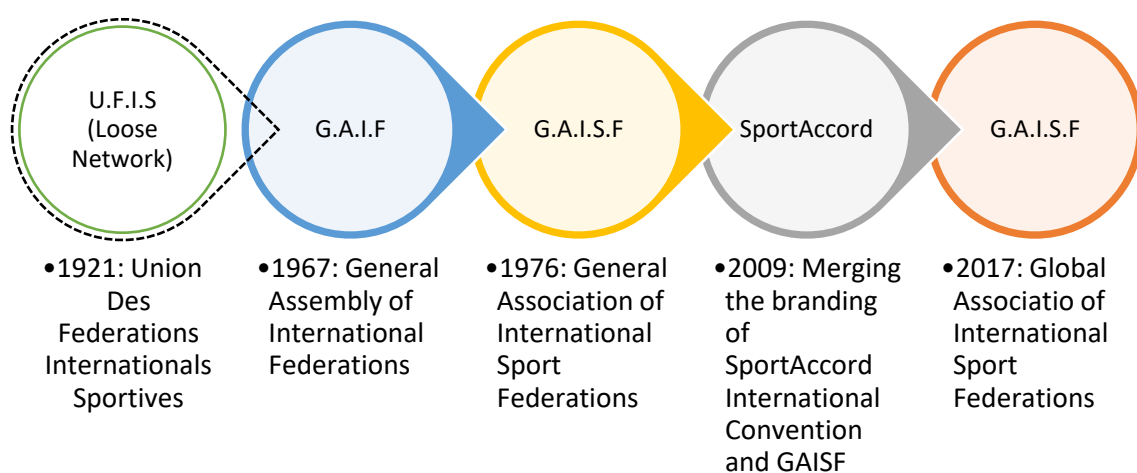


Figure 30- Trajectory of GAISF over time

Linking the point above to the emergence of the meta-organisation, which is stage 1 of the organisational lifecycle of D'unno and Zuckerman (1987), it is observed that IFs, as dependant organisations did face environmental uncertainty, value common resources and shared dependencies. As the meta-organisation began to reduce the uncertainty in the environment of its members and to provide valued resources, the distorted boundaries of power promoted the dominant stakeholder to oppose the meta-organisation. However, given the counterinfluence of the outer context, interdependencies were created, allowing the meta-organisation to transition to Stage 2, transition to a formal organisation. Nonetheless, as new stages emerge, new uncertainties may arise, valued resources of members may shift and stimulants for active participation may change (Smith and Miner 2013). Therefore, it is these stages where the role of apex leaders is highlighted as transitioning from one stage, or tipping point, to another that require effective strategic leadership (Hunt et al. 1988 Kimberly and Miles 1980, Yoells et al. 2011).

It was at stage 3 of D'unno and Zuckerman (1987) model, which is maturity of federation, where the meta-organisation was marginalised hence it was not able to exercise continuous influence, therefore it was contained in the form of a dormant meta-organisation (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). Given the break of GAISF into smaller meta-organisations and relocation of value-generating processes from GAISF to the spin-off meta-organisations, not all members were willing to put the association's interest first thus the meta-organisation did not sufficiently mature. The fourth stage of the D'unno and Zuckerman (1987) model is related to critical crossroads. It is learnt that the direction of the meta-organisation moving forward from this stage is dependent on how effectively it transitioned during the previous stages. An example of this was observed in the comparison of responses of members to governance failure between a meta-organisation such GAISF and a governing body such as FIFA.

Due to the lack of accountability, inadequate regulatory law enforcement and rent-seeking behaviour from stakeholders, international sport associations have faced several governance problems in the past (Boudreaux, Karahan and Coats 2016). Externally, the failure of governance mechanisms in these entities has mostly been followed by negative reactions from the media and the public (Maennig 2005). Internally, the concerned organisations have mostly been subject to changes of personnel in various positions whilst the overall organisational structure remains unchanged (Boudreaux et al. 2016). Following well-documented governance failures in sport meta-organisations such as FIFA, it has been observed that although members of the organisations may seek a certain degree of reform, they remain in the organisation.

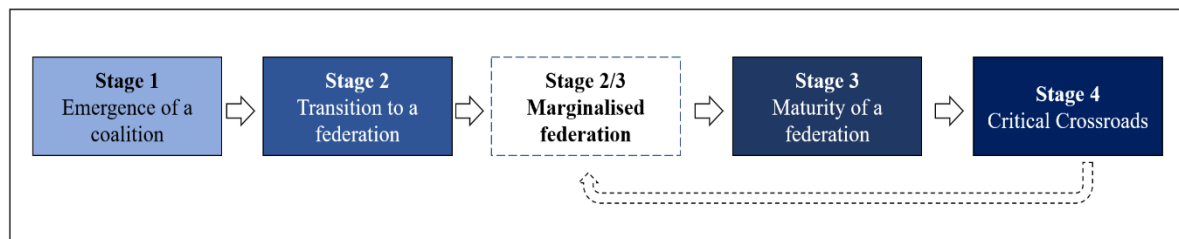


Although some suggested that FIFA should be dissolved and a new organisation should be set up (Sky Sports 2015), the members remained in the organisation and sought change from within.

GAISF, however, showcased a different form of response to governance failure. It is essential to note that GAISF is an inter-organisational initiative that serves as the association of international governing bodies of sports. On its own, it does not govern a sporting discipline and it does not possess a significant public profile compared to, for instance, FIFA. Therefore, the Battle of Sochi was not overly covered in mainstream media and its coverage was limited to sport and business outlets. Thus, it is useful to note that the point of focus is not the differences in the magnitude of reaction to governance failure, rather the form of reaction to governance failure.

The governance failure at GAISF was characterised with ineffective leadership and lack of consensus due to poor flow of information, which corresponds with the suggestions of Howlett and Ramesh (2014) regarding causes of governance failure. Nonetheless, following the governance failure of GAISF, members decided to either suspended their membership or withdraw from the association entirely. The possibility of dissolving GAISF was also discussed (Evans 2015). Although the organisation was not dissolved and instead went through a major restructure, it is critical to note the initial response of members to governance failure compared to that of FIFA members. This may be linked to the note that meta-organisations such as FIFA that were able to mature, establish their long term legitimacy and build critical dependencies on their members are able to cope better with, arguably more severe, governance failure than meta-organisations such as GAISF that were marginalised prior to reaching full maturity.

The figure below is the re-conceptualised version of the model of D'unno and Zuckerman (1987). It effectively shows that once the meta-organisation reaches the stage of 'critical crossroads', it could progress in multiple directions. Other meta-organisation in sport (e.g. international federations such as FIFA) have progressed forward, though undergoing a turbulent period following governance failure. However, in the case of GAISF it was revealed that if the meta-organisation does not obtain sufficient maturity, once reaching critical crossroads it could revert back to an earlier lifecycle stage. The main issue here is that the meta-organisation is still considered a formal organisation with sufficient legitimacy in the field, though it lacks the necessary maturity to prompt its members to prioritise the interest of the collective over their own individual interests.



*Figure 31- GAISF reverting to an earlier organisational lifecycle following governance failure*

It may be argued that at such in-between stage, the meta-organisation may have a relatively lower level of effectiveness. Organisational effectiveness is a fundamental subject in the study of organisations which has been subject to multi-disciplinary scholarly work over the past few decades (Cameron 1986). As a result, current literature offers several theoretical frameworks and guidelines, all proposing various criteria, to assess organisational effectiveness (Papadimitriou and Taylor 2000). More recently, Ogbojafor, Muo and Aduloju (2012) have also mentioned that organisational effectiveness is a complex and contentious concept and there is a lack of agreement on what constitute “organisational effectiveness”. Therefore, it is understood that in order to conduct a through assessment of organisational effectiveness in relation to a particular organisation, it is important to utilise a framework that is relevant to the empirical context of that organisation. However, since meta-organisation theory is relatively recent, there are no established organisational effectiveness guidelines particular to meta-organisations. Nevertheless, common themes amongst most organisational effectiveness frameworks include attention to achieving the organisational goals, satisfaction of constituents and relationship with the external environment (Armistead, Pritchard and Machin 1999, Cameron 1986, Ogbojafor, Muo and Aduloju 2012, Papadimitriou and Taylor 2000, Pounder 2001, Redshaw 2000).

By synthesising the above criteria of organisational effectiveness and the empirical findings of this study in relation to the context of meta-organisations, it can be stated that meta-organisations have two sets of organisational effectiveness parameters. The first set of these parameters apply consistently throughout the meta-organisation’s trajectory path. The main criteria of this set could be considered the meta-organisation’s ability to reduce uncertainty in the environment of its members. This is chiefly achieved by providing critical resources, that are sustainable and not easily substitutable, to members. Secondly, the meta-organisation needs to ensure that it does not impose “association risk” to its members, or at least minimise it.

Association risk, in this context, can be understood as the potential negative impact on a member's utility arising from obtaining membership in the meta-organisation. This point may be more applicable to relatively more politicised contexts whereby an organisation may face deterioration of its relationships with other resourceful non-members as a result of joining a particular meta-organisation.

The second set of organisational effectiveness parameters are more stage-based. In the earlier stages of the meta-organisation's lifecycle, the most critical parameter is the meta-organisation's ability to convey its purpose and establish its legitimacy. As the meta-organisation matures and progresses forward on its trajectory, it is likely that it would cumulate further legitimacy therefore the importance of this criteria diminishes over time. Nevertheless, as the meta-organisations evolves, it needs to continuously audit the environment of its members to ensure it is responding to the ever-changing needs of its members, and where necessary rethink its organisational purpose. This further signifies the importance of bottom-up strategising, ensuring consensus and member engagement.

Problems of meta-organisations across various stages of their lifecycle are somewhat interlinked with their effectiveness aspects. Similar to criteria for organisational effectiveness, problems of meta-organisations can also be understood as "continuous" or "stage-based". As far as stage-based problems, during the earlier stages of their lifecycle, meta-organisations' main problem can be difficulty of conveying the organisational purpose, particularly when there are "association risks" involved. Also, counterinfluence of non-members who seek to preserve existing boundaries as well as the extent of heterogeneity of prospecting members can hinder the process of formalising collective action. However, once the meta-organisation establishes its legitimacy, these problems may fade away. As the meta-organisation progresses through time, the expanding member base may become increasingly heterogenous, weakening the meta-organisation's central core of authority. In such situations, if the meta-organisation achieves its original purposes but lose relevance over time, it may become a dormant, or marginalised, meta-organisation, particularly given that it is likely that members will have a low level of organisational identification in relation to the meta-organisation.

On the other hand, there are certain chronic challenges that meta-organisations face regardless of the stage of lifecycle they are at. Dependency on members as well as conflict resolution are issues that are inherent in the structure of meta-organisations. These issues were particularly highlighted in the findings of this study. For example, if GAISF loses FIFA as a member, it is not possible for GAISF to find a replacement with equal level of field legitimacy and resourcefulness. Also, unlike individual-based organisations, the pool from which meta-organisations can attract members from, is limited. Conflict resolution is another chronic challenge that meta-organisation literature highlights as an important problem. The study of GAISF also does not show any evidence that over time meta-organisations can devise more effective conflict resolution strategies.

Considering the trajectory path that GAISF followed, it could be assumed that apex leaders with a transformational leadership approach can be beneficial to the meta-organisation during “transitional” stages of the lifecycle. Transformational leadership is often characterised with idealised influencer, inspirational motivation, individual consideration and intellectual stimulation (Pounder 2001). Transitional stages can be understood as periods of the lifecycle when the meta-organisation is departing from stage and entering into a new stage. Considering that length of each stage is variable, each meta-organisation may spend a different amount of time at each stage of the lifecycle. Arguably, a more transactional leadership approach may be more effective for periods that the meta-organisation spends during each stage. Transactional leadership approach is less charismatic than the transformational approach, though it pays more attention to adoption of cost-effective and efficient business processes (Pounder 2001). Armistead, Pritchard and Machin (1999) proposed that paying attention to managing business processes is the key to organisational effectiveness. Hence it could be concluded when the meta-organisation is at the start of a given stage of the lifecycle, it may be beneficial for it to have a transformational leadership approach in order to be able to convey its purpose and define common goals. However, this could be followed by a more transactional approach where the focus is shifted towards ensuring member engagement and meta-organisational activity. As observed in the case of GAISF, and more importantly the Battle of Sochi, continuous adoption of transformational-like leadership approach, particularly without ensuring explicit consensus, can cause governance failure. These propositions can be further refined by future research.

### 5.3. Governance failure

The governance failure of GAISF that peaked during the 2015 annual congress of the association, during a period the organisation was known as SportAccord, was stimulated by issues that very much resemble the tensions between the IFs and the IOC during the 1970s and 1980s. Maruis Vizer, the president of the association at the time, had plans to make IFs less dependent on the IOC-distributed revenues and to encourage IFs to join a multi-sporting event called United World Games, which would consist of the world championship of every IF taking place at the same time. This was observed as a direct substitute to the Games. Vizer, similar to Keller, was critical of the IOC's lack of collaboration with IFs and argued that the IOC did not distribute the resources fairly to IFs. Such an approach signifies an institutionalised motto in the meta-organisation which was resurrected as a result of a change in leadership only in the later stage of the meta-organisation lifecycle.

*"[ Vizer] I made a number of proposals in favor and for the benefit of IFs and SportAccord but we have never received a positive reaction. Mr. President, stop blocking the SportAccord strategy in its mission to identify and organise conventions and multi-sport games."*

*Insidesthegames archives 2015*

*"The hostility between the two men dates back to Vizer's proposal more than two years ago to launch the United World Games, an event that would combine the major championships of several sports in the same country during the same period." Insidesthegames archives 2015*

*"The voting for potential host cities of the Olympic Games is compromised" Insidesthegames archives 2015*

*"Today, the money invested in sport never reaches the athletes and their families."*

*Insidesthegames archives 2015*

*"Why invest hundreds of millions of dollars in Opening and Closing ceremonies, while millions of athletes live in hunger and they don't stand a chance in sport due to the lack of proper conditions? If indeed the IOC distributes \$3.25 million a day, every day of the year, for the development of sport worldwide, why do millions of athletes suffer and cannot enjoy or reach performances in sport?" Insidesthegames archives 2015*

Following the critical statements of GAISF president against the IOC, 29 of the 92 members either suspended or withdrew from the association. They included 22 Olympic IFs (21 AOISF members and 2 AIOWF members) as well as 7 non-Olympic IFs. This was regarded as a governance failure given that the association experienced legitimacy crisis as some argued there was no longer a need for this association (Dixon and Dogan 2002, Evans 2015). The governance failure resembled the principal-agent issue as principals (i.e. IFs) claimed that the agent (i.e. the meta-organisation) acted against their interests. However, examination of the failure shows that resource dependencies in the field prompted the members to react to the failure coercively. Brechin and Ness (2013) highlight the importance of exploring the skills and resources that are required to promote the more independent interests of these otherwise environmentally constrained organisations. The importance management and leadership in meta-organisations has also been emphasised by McIntyre (2009) who implied that a style of leadership that can communicate and incorporate a common sense of purpose is vital for a meta-organisation. This is particularly critical given that some members in a meta-organisation may have leaders who are more influential and powerful than the leader of the meta-organisation itself (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005).

*"Well, I did not expect it but we had some problems with SportAccord and Mr Vizer was not being very democratic, and we immediately in Sochi realised that things have to be changed."*  
AIOWF member

*"I think one of the arguments around the Sochi SportAccord meeting, if I remember correctly was that in terms of how the membership was not involved in the then president's views and were not engaged in advance. It was a very different conversation that other international federations were having with the Olympic Movement."* ASOIF member

However, institutional pressures were observed as well (Lee 2011). Some of the interviewees argued that parts of the views of Vizer were not entirely wrong, rather it was how it was communicated. For example, IFs did agree that the Games was too costly and needed reform. Also, some stated that Olympic IFs, pressures by the IOC, withdrew in order to communicate a political response. The institutional pressure was further reflected in the statements made by withdrawing members. Reviewing their statement showed that most members were not able to precisely express their key arguments against the views of the meta-organisation. Rather, the emphasis was placed on highlighting conformity to resource-providing non-members.

*"[they suspended or withdrew their membership] Because they were told to. No doubt about it." AIMS member*

*In terms of the scale of it wrong, the amount of facilities it has to built is wrong. The fact that very few cities wanting to bid for the Olympic Games is wrong. [1]*

*"I think right now, the whole Olympic Games is not going in the right direction right now. It is too expensive. Right now, it is alarming to see only two cities are left now, two cities that have hosted the Games twice each before. For a prestigious Games like the Olympics, there should be 10 cities competing heavily for bidding. So this shows that the Games are not going the right way now. I think reform is needed. As it is, the Olympic Game is already losing credibility. The IOC too" an ARISF member*

*"So don't mix the political gesture and legal, institutional decision making. Sochi has been 100% political." ASOIF member*

Nonetheless, it has to be noted that in meta-organisations the number of important and resourceful members, that had closer allegiance to dominant non-member stakeholders, was lower than the less resourceful members, conflict resolution methods such as voting was not going to resolve the matter (Ahrne and Brunsson 2012). This may also explain why opposing members chose to withdrew from the association.

*"As we have seen recently, when they wanted to change the statues of SportAccord recently, they realised that they could not because there were more non-Olympic sports that Olympic sports hence they would never get the vote., hence it is matter of it is a matter of neutralising it." AIMS member*

The note that a particular sub-group of the meta-organisation acted in the same way is observed in other meta-organisations outside sport as well, for instance OPEC. A mutual interest in the rise of the price of crude oil was the primary reason behind the creation of OPEC by its founding members in the 1960s (Stevens 2008). Although some have argued that OPEC since has acted a price dictating cartel, studies have shown that characteristics of cartels are observed more within blurred subgroups within OPEC. Bérmond, Hache and Mignon (2012) demonstrate this and stated that even though in the earlier years of its existence OPEC did succeed in influencing the price, in more recent periods it has simply been a price taker. Nonetheless, within OPEC members can be classified into two groups, namely savers (Iran, Libya, Kuwait, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, UAE and Venezuela) and spenders (Algeria, Indonesia, Iraq and Nigeria) with each group acting as a cartel separately, rather than OPEC as whole. This could be reflected back to organisations such as ASOIF and highlight the importance of the organisational boundaries they impose onto their wider environment (Santos and Eisenhardt 2005).

## 5.4. Intricacies of restructuring

### 5.4.1. Changing contexts

The governance failure of GAISF was indicative of organisational recycle at critical crossroads, the 4<sup>th</sup> stage of D'unno and Zuckerman (1987) model. The meta-organisation's leadership attempted to reconfigure the boundaries in favour of its members against dominant non-members. However, organisational weaknesses of the meta-organisation were exploited to, once again, marginalise the meta-organisation. Hence it was learnt that if the meta-organisation has not accrued adequate maturity during its early lifecycle stages, at critical crossroads it may face membership withdrawal, legitimacy crisis and subsequently revert back to an earlier stage of the lifecycle (Phelps et al. 2007). The role of leadership at critical stages of the meta-organisation was highlighted above. Below, strategic and organisational challenges of GAISF are discussed in order to highlight obstacles that a meta-organisation may face in order to restructure back to its position prior to governance failure. The key two themes identified in this regard were recurring change in organisational environment as well as operationalised heterogeneity that leads to implicit hierarchies.



Literature suggests that in meta-organisations, the turnover of members may be low hence meta-organisations may experience a slow organisational change (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). However, it was learnt that as the organisational dynamics of each individual member change, the meta-organisation must react to that change otherwise it will shift towards being a dormant meta-organisation that is simply occupying organisational space (Spillman 2017). The analysis of data revealed that GAISF, similar to other meta-organisations, acted with inertia to discontinuous change (Kogut et al. 2012). Although originally it was developing on a trajectory path that would place the meta-organisation in an influential position in its organisational field, due to its own organisational weaknesses and the tactics of dominant non-members, it was marginalised. Thus, one may argue that the meta-organisation was not able to react to its changing context.

Nevertheless, meta-organisations may need to identify ways through which they can add value to their members and justify the cost of membership, beyond serving their original purpose (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). For instance, one of the early challenges of IFs was in relation to the debate over amateurism, or being able to host world championships during an Olympic year whilst still receiving TV money from the IOC. Once a meta-organisation lobbies on behalf of its members to resolve such problems, it needs to identify new opportunities through which it could increase dependency of members on the membership (Ahrne and Brunsson 2010a). Analysis of the data showed that each individual member is a member of a number of meta-organisations, including the likes of ASOIF, AIOWF etc. Due to a proliferating number of meta-organisations in the field as well as the main value each member receives from the meta-organisation, each member perceives the purpose of the meta-organisation differently. There may also be an organisational overlap between different meta-organisations each IF is a member of. When interviewees were presented with the stated mission and vision statement of GAISF (at the time of data collection) and asked to what extent they agree with those statements, the responses varied differently. GAISF was described by many different terms such as “a forum of discussion”, “trade association”, “parliament of sport”. This highlights the necessity of conveying a common sense of purpose amongst membership in order to strengthen the core of the meta-organisation (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). This is particularly important if certain value-generating processes were shifted away from the meta-organisation and are now available through other meta-organisations.

It is also revealed that when non-members attempt to restore the boundaries, those members that have low level of organisational identification with the meta-organisation do not show support to the meta-organisation, or willingness to resist the restoring of the boundaries, arguably because they have a higher organisational identification with the non-member due to resource dependency considerations. Furthermore, organisational identification is also observed in relation to emergence of implicit hierarchies. When the larger meta-organisation is implicitly split into a number of smaller though homogenous meta-organisations, members are more likely to express a higher degree of organisational identification with the smaller meta-organisation compared to the larger collective.

Previously it has been mentioned that classic organisational theories may have shortcomings in explaining the behaviour of meta-organisations. Also, in Chapter 2 section 2.3.3, it has been explained that in the context of a meta-organisation, members may be conceptualised as principals and meta-organisation, and more specifically its secretariat, as the agent. Agency theory argues that it is usually the agent that lacks organisational identification and leads the principal to incur agency costs. However, if one is to hold such conceptualisation, this study showed that in the case of meta-organisations, it could actually be the members (i.e. the principal) that may lack organisational identification. Arguably this paradox is less to do with inappropriate conceptualisation of principal and agent in the context of meta-organisations, and more to do with inapplicability of agency theory for comprehensive examination of meta-organisations.

#### 5.4.2. Heterogeneity and hierarchies

As discussed previously, members may join a meta-organisation with similar interests and values, however as individual organisations they may develop on different trajectory paths (Berkowitz and Bor 2017). However, as observed in this research, as the organisational environments and resource dependencies change, heterogeneity may increase in the membership. One of the shortcomings of meta-organisation theory is that it does not adequately define heterogeneity. It was learnt that in the case of meta-organisations, it is the diversity in the attitudes and interests both between and within stakeholder groups that shapes the trajectory of the mobilisation process (Cordano et al. 2004). It was obtained that IFs themselves, as meta-organisations, have a very diverse membership in terms of size and resources. However, given that their members are more similar in terms of interests, IFs as meta-organisations enjoy a stronger core of authority compared to associations such as GAISF.

Furthermore, IFs show a higher degree of organisational identification with smaller meta-organisations (e.g. ASOIF, AIOWF etc.) than with GAISF (Mael and Ashforth 1992). It has been noted that stakeholder groups tend to have heterogeneous interests, thus it is often challenging to set actionable priorities and effectively mobilise in order to take action towards common goals (Winn 2001, Wolfe and Pulter 2002). Given that those smaller meta-organisations are composed of more homogenous groups of organisations, they have a stronger core of authority (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005).

Moreover, it was discovered that sub-dividing the meta-organisation into smaller meta-organisations resulted in emergence of an implicit hierarchy within the larger meta-organisation. The literature suggests that meta-organisations are partial organisations as they lack hierarchy (Ahrne and Brunsson 2010b, Ahrne et al. 2016b). It is argued that meta-organisations rely on consensus and not hierarchy in order to facilitate decision-making (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016, Heine and Kerk 2017). Although the decision-making process in GAISF is still based on consensus, it was discovered that the “divide and conquer” tactics that were deployed by Samaranch in the 1980s in fact created a pyramid in the organisational field of IFs. Such a pyramid also stimulates competitiveness amongst members.

IFs that are recognised as an international sport governing body but are not yet recognised by the IOC, are part of AIMS. IFs that become recognised by the IOC, join ARISF. Then, IFs that become included into the Olympic programme would join either AIOWF or ARISF depending on the nature of their sport. However, given that there are a finite number of places in each group and there are internally-conducted reviews to update the members, at set intervals certain members may go up or down this ladder. Thus, at the same time members in e.g. ARISF are exercising collective action through a union to protect their interests, they are simultaneously trying to exit the meta-organisation and join the meta-organisation higher up in the pyramid. As observed in the responses to governance failure, the minority Olympic IFs, who control more resources and legitimise the credibility of GAISF, were able to exercise more influence than others in the decision-making process relating to resolving the governance failure. Thus, although the decision-making is theoretically based upon consensus, IFs in the higher level of the pyramid are able to exercise more influence. This pyramid is highly identified by all IFs thus although the meta-organisation is not theoretically structured as such, existence of more homogenous meta-organisations that are interlinked based on association with dominant non-members, creates an implicit hierarchy in the larger meta-organisation.

Meta-organisations are one of the most common form of organising in the governance system of sports. Meta-organisations may be formed for different purposes, though once established they could pursue a hybrid form of activities. Meta-organisations that play a role in setting standards and attribute recognition to their members could exercise a greater level of influence over the resource distribution in their fields compared to meta-organisations that simply provide a forum of discussion for their members. For example, meta-organisations such as GAISF do not generate adequate revenue in order to create significant dependencies for the more resourceful members. Simultaneously, some of the IFs such as FIFA, that are meta-organisation themselves, are in possession of large financial assets. Hence it can be observed that, in the organisational field of sports, there are paradoxical cases of meta-organisations so it cannot be claimed that all meta-organisations lack financial budget. Member of FIFA, that are national federations, are meta-organisations as well. Even in that group of seemingly more homogenous organisations there is a notable disparity. The national football federation of countries where football is highly developed have relatively large financial budgets and are able to generate substantial levels of revenue. At the same time, a national football federation in a relatively poor country may be operating from a kitchen table.

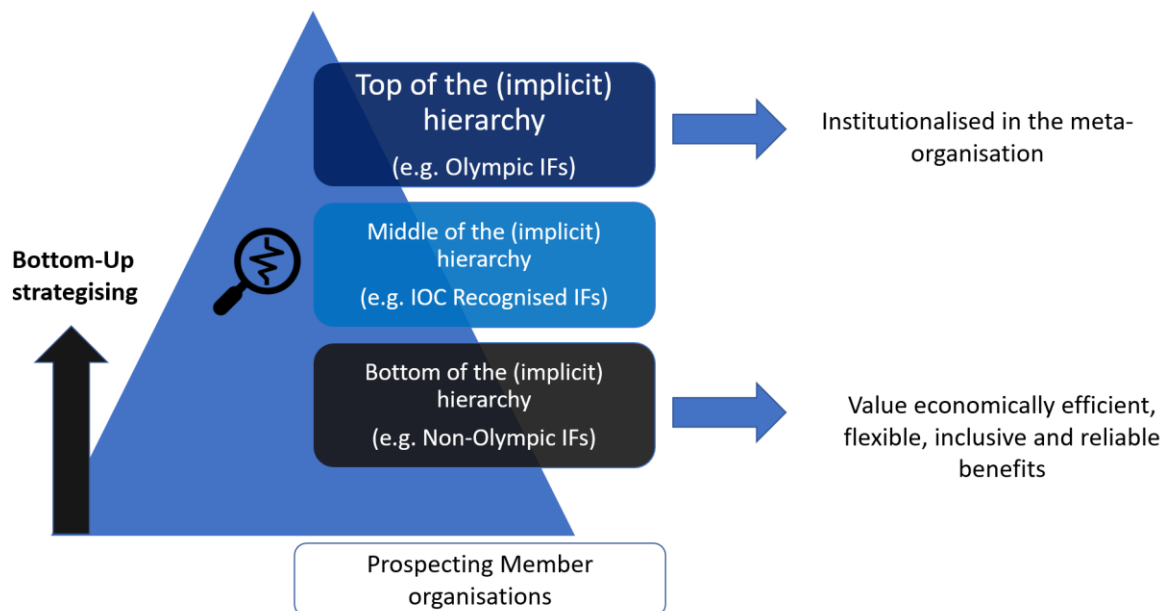


Figure 32- Bottom strategizing to address the implicit hierarchy in order to ensure consensus

## 5.5. Future strategies

Thus far the why and how of the meta-organisation formation have been discussed. It has been discussed that how it evolved over time and how it coped with governance failure at the critical crossroads of its organisational lifecycle. This section discusses the findings in relation to how the meta-organisation can move forward. It was learnt that following its organisational restructure, the organisation was considerably downsized, shrinking from an organisation with approximately 45 full-time staff in its secretariat to about 6,7 employees. However, members generally agreed that the meta-organisation it is still continuing to play an important role in its organisational field.

According to the latest statutes of GAISF (GAISF 2017), full members of GAISF pay annual subscription fee, determined by GAISF Council, to maintain their membership. In exchange for this membership fee, GAISF provides a range of benefits and support services for its members. The primary data discovered that due to the heterogeneity of GAISF's members, the views on the benefits of the membership were relatively mixed. It was obtained that depending on each IFs' organisational objectives, priorities, needs and resources, the assessment of GAISF delivered values could differ. Overall, however, all interviewees, in particular non-Olympic IFs, did acknowledge that being a member of GAISF does offer certain benefits in various degrees.

*“Everyone is going to have a different take on this – what they stand for, what they trying to accomplish, and what our part is in that, and to make the most out of it” – Provisional ASOIF member*

*“So I think for every federation the perception would be different. But if it was not beneficial, we would not be here. For us, it is just an association that we are part of and I think together we can help each other to move forward.” ASOIF member*

*“For non-Olympic sports, GAISF can be very useful.” – ASOIF member*

*“I am happy I can be a member.” – ARISF member*

The analysis of the data suggests that there is a degree of institutionalised member participation. Given that many of the IFs have been a member of GAISF for decades, they find themselves institutionalised in various associations they are member of. Some members stated that by being in GAISF, IFs can show solidarity so when the sport as sector is at risk, they can combine their efforts to resolve the matter (Barnett 2017). More resourceful members, however, appeared to exercise their membership mainly as a vehicle to maintain influence in their organisational environment. In other words, they seem to believe that although by being an active member of GAISF they may not receive notable value, by not being a member they may not be able to impose influence in important decision-making processes (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008).

In order to obtain a better understanding about how the organisation can continue to add value to its members, or even add further value to its members, membership benefits of GAISF were analysed and potential areas for growth were identified. Firstly, GAISF members can benefit from the services that the association provides. These services are designed to address the needs of the members in a cost-effective way. The most notable support service of GAISF, that majority of members highly value, is its anti-doping service. This service is delivered by a designated department known as Doping-Free Support Unit (DFSU). GAISF has also been offering a number of digital support services to its members. Previously, they have facilitated digital content-sharing platforms (e.g. SportHub). More recently GAISF has been working on a brand new initiative known as .Sport that focuses on improving the digital branding of its members, and more generally international sport organisations. In addition to these, GAISF provides regulatory assistance to its members in relation to various compliance matters. Some of these matters may be directly linked to sport administration issues whilst others may be more general, for example data protection and the latest General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) legislations.

Secondly, GAISF facilitates networking and knowledge-sharing opportunities for its members by organising various networking events. The most notable event of GAISF is its annual congress known as SportAccord Convention which gathers all of the leading figures from IFs, other international sport organisations, governments and private sector firms. IF Forum is the second major annual event of GAISF that is only attended by invited delegates and is not open to public or press. In addition to these regularly hosted events, GAISF organises ad-hoc events and workshops according to the needs of its members. Thirdly, and more importantly, membership of GAISF entails a notable degree of institutional benefits. Securing GAISF members for an IF implies that the IF has been recognised as an international governing body of its respective sport. This recognition attributes a certain degree of legitimacy to that IF and unlocks a broad range of opportunities for that particular sport.

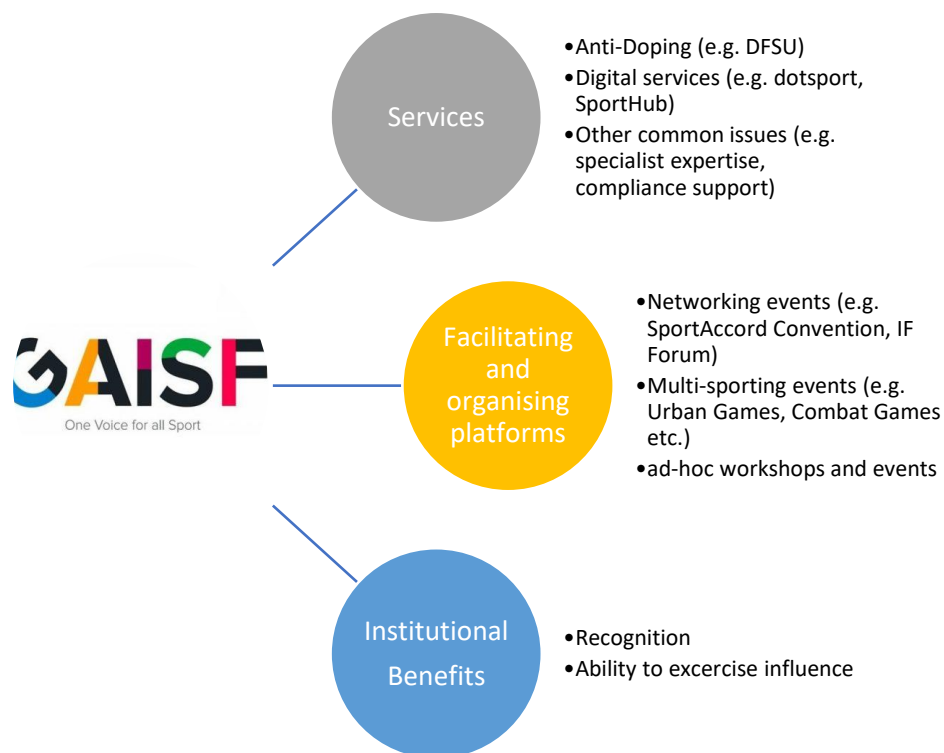


Figure 33- Membership value provided by GAISF

It was obtained that the reason services such as DFSU are highly valued by most members is that it provides a critical resource to members with economic efficiency, reliability and flexibility. Anti-doping procedures are becoming increasingly costly and require IFs to invest notable amounts into their anti-doping programmes in order to be compliant with WADA regulations. Particularly members with less resources highly depend on this service. Although more resourced members may not need this support from GAISF, given they have their own full-time operation in this area, anti-doping is a matter that will be a continuous concern for IFs. Therefore, such a service has the potential to help GAISF maintain the dependency of its members.

Moreover, GAISF has been able to provide support in areas where members are facing change in their context, for example in relation to regulations. For instance, GAISF provided its members with various support initiatives in order to help them comply with GDPR. It was learnt that smaller meta-organisations mainly focus on issues of their members as it pertains to the Games rather than the more general needs of the IFs. Therefore, GAISF can continuously audit the dependencies of its members and identify areas where it could provide support that could apply to a large portion of its members.

The annual congress of GAISF, which was discussed in the retrospective phase, continues to be the trademark benefit of GAISF. It provides members with the opportunity to interact not only with other IFs but the wider industry. Less resource members highly value the networking opportunities in these events as well as the visibility and exposure they receive. However, multi-sporting games are received with mixed views. Although many IFs, particularly non-Olympic IFs, value platforms that can offer them exposure, relatively more established IFs that have occupied schedules do not find them equally valuable. Nonetheless, Olympic IFs, for example, may use these events to showcase non-Olympic disciplines they govern. The challenge with this stream of activities is that given the thematic nature of multi-sporting events (e.g. Urban Games, Beach Games etc.), they may not apply to all IFs hence some members may not be able to receive value even if they value the concept of it. Therefore, inclusivity was highlighted as an important characteristic of support initiatives GAISF could provide its members with.



More importantly, GAISF membership reinforces the identity of its members and gives them further legitimacy. However, it was noted that this institutional benefit has an implicit fade-away issue. IFs that are not recognised by GAISF and aim to receive the membership, so they can access funding from other authorities, highly value the GAISF membership. Nonetheless, as observed in the response to governance failure, some members proactively decided to forfeit their membership. This links back to the role of smaller meta-organisations. Given that almost the entire member base of GAISF is simultaneously a member of one of the smaller meta-organisations (e.g. ASOIF, ARISF etc.), membership in those subgroups preserves their legitimacy. Therefore, GAISF membership is perceived as a “stepping stone” in the sense that once it has been obtained, the legitimacy driven from it is institutionalised in the field. As the IFs progress through the pyramid discussed earlier, the legitimacy that is exclusively attributable to GAISF membership fades away.

*“For us, the first thing is to get the SportAccord membership in order to get that recognition and legitimacy for SportAccord. We are absolutely insistent on getting SportAccord recognition and it is a strategic priority for us. I am not going to say every day, but every week we get multiple requests from our members regarding an update on how the situation is developing regarding a membership at SportAccord. Through that government recognition they can have greater access to facilities, greater legitimacy, therefore they have more chances of obtaining sponsorship and of course they would be able to have access to government funding.” Observer IF*

*“For me to have a recognition is important because it means with the governments, schools I can get involved. It is important that we get recognition”. Observer IF*

*“So for me, SportAccord is like a stepping stone, it is a start of a journey. I think if I was a summer or winter Olympic federation I would think that GAISF is somewhat irrelevant” ARISF member*

It was noted that given the heterogeneity of membership in GAISF, it is challenging to continuously devise support initiatives that can benefit all members. However, it was also learned that formulating plans at board level and attempting to implement them top down can increase the likelihood of governance failure, mainly due to agency problems. This issue was observed in the approach of Vizer as he did not ensure full consensus before attempting to implement his plans. Therefore, it is suggested that in order to enhance the likelihood of increased consensus, strategising of the meta-organisation should be conducted bottom-up. This can be done by actively surveying the membership in order to allow the members to guide the direction of the meta-organisation (Cropper and Bor 2018).

As far as governance failure is concerned, Governance failure, within organisational settings that operate under the network mode of governance, are often caused by poor steering capacities. The term governance capacity refers to “the resources and skills a governance system requires to steer a governance mode so as to make sound policy choices and implement them effectively” (Wu and Ramesh 2014: 322). Literature suggests that empowering the flow of information as well as increased capacity of managerial expertise can be solutions to governance failure. Therefore, meta-organisations could pay more attention to member communication and transparency, which are also factors discussed in the organisational effectiveness literature.

More importantly, meta-organisations should consider proactive investing in governance capacity. In terms of organisational dimensions, the literature suggests that meta-organisations have several differences compared to individual-based organisations. In practice, however, sport meta-organisations are not treated differently in terms of governance capacity. As mentioned before, the first order of governance failure in the organisational field of sports can be linked to the misalignment of the governance mode and organisational objectives. In other words, organisations that were not structurally configured to manage large funds and engage with sizable commercial activities, are being run similar to individual-based firms. It would be useful if sport meta-organisations invested in governance capacity that was relevant to their governance mode. Alternatively, they could transform their mode of governance so that would have closer alignment with their governance capacity.

## 5.6. Summary

The purpose of this chapter was present and discuss the findings of the real-time phase of the research. Although several learning points were discussed, the main aim was to address the key factors that shape the trajectory path of the meta-organisation. Also, it was explained how meta-organisations could strategise in order to maintain field relevance and avoid potential causes of governance failure. To sum up the key points raised in this chapter, it was explained that when new meta-organisations emerge into the field, they may distort the boundaries of power. Non-members that may be more resourceful than the meta-organisation may insert agency into the meta-organisation or exploit the heterogeneity of its membership.

Also, from a lifecycle perspective, it was obtained that meta-organisations that do not sufficiently mature, if they arrive at critical crossroad and face governance failure, they may revert back to an earlier stage in their organisational lifecycle. In the case of GAISF, it was shown that the meta-organisation could revert to an “in-between” stage where although it is an adequately legitimate actor within its field, it lacks the necessary maturity for its key members to prioritise the collective interests. Furthermore, important parameters of organisational effectiveness and role of apex leaders were discussed. It was maintained that meta-organisations possess a set of stage-based characteristics and a set of continuous characterises, which are effectively present with the meta-organisation at every stage. The meta-organisation’s ability to reduce uncertainty in the environment of its members by providing critical resources is the critical criteria for effectiveness that applies at every stage. However, conveying the purposes of the meta-organisation is more relevant in the earlier stages. As the meta-organisation progresses through its lifecycle, it is likely that it would cumulate further legitimacy therefore the importance of this criteria diminishes over time. Maintaining field relevance becomes more important. Also, it was mentioned that transformational leaders can be more beneficial for meta-organisations during transitional phases, whilst for in-between phases a transactional leadership may be more effective. Future research can build upon these assumptions further.

One critical aspect of meta-organisations is the degree of heterogeneity of its members. as the organisational environments and resource dependencies change, heterogeneity may increase in the membership. One of the shortcomings of meta-organisation theory is that it does not adequately define heterogeneity. It was learnt that in the case of meta-organisations, it is the diversity in the attitudes and interests both between and within stakeholder groups that shapes the trajectory of the mobilisation process. In order to ensure consensus and avoid governance failure with the presence of a heterogenous member base, meta-organisations should seek to strategise bottom-up. Also, investing in managerial expertise that is relevant to the governance mode of meta-organisations as well as empowering the flow of information and member communication can prevent governance failure.

# Chapter 6: Conclusion

## 6.1. Introduction

This chapter provides concluding remarks to this thesis. First, key theories used are highlighted and important methodological considerations stated. Important contributions to knowledge are summarised and areas for further research are suggested. Limitations of the research are noted as well. The figure below outlines the journey of the research.

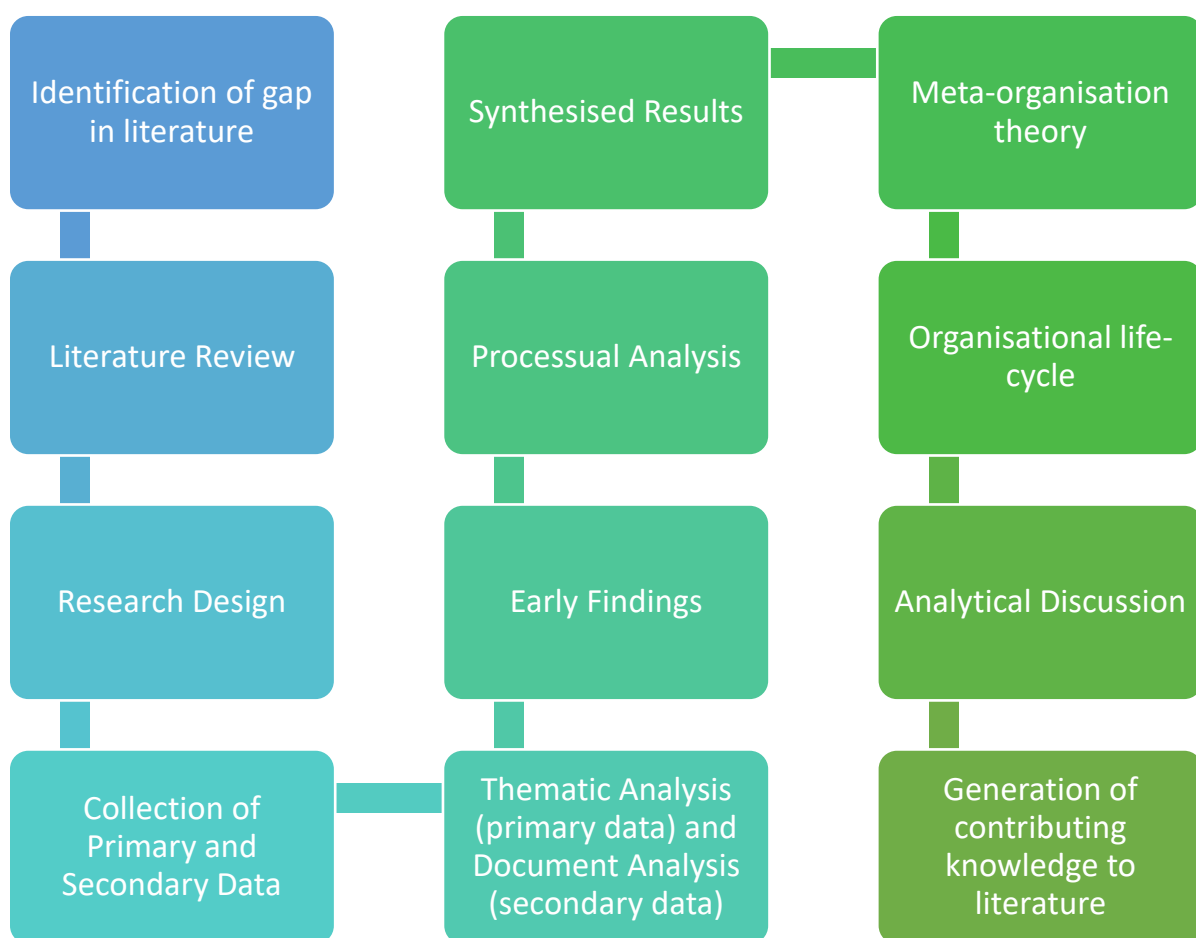


Figure 34- Flow of the research

This research examines the organisational evolution of international associations in sport. The organisation field of sport has significantly changed since sports began to be organised (Gratton et al. 2012). The field has been subject to increased professionalisation and commercialisation (Slack 2005, Nagel et al. 2015). It has also continued to be a critical sector in terms of socio-political importance (Geerart et al. 2014, Grix 2013). Such change in the field has been accompanied with several governance issues hence, given the interest of public and governments in the sector, a considerable amount of research has been carried out to address the governance issues facing sport organisations, which are mostly federation associated composed of other organisations (Parent and Hoye 2018).

The majority of the literature on governance and organisational behaviour of sport organisations, however, has been on relatively more established fields of inquiry such as non-profit and commercial literature (O'Boyle and Shilbury 2016, Shilbury et al. 2013). Although concepts such as agency theory, institutional theory, stakeholder theory and resource dependency theory do offer insightful perspective in this regard (Ferkins and Shilbury 2015b), it is acknowledged that organisations composed of other organisations differ from organisations composed of other individuals. This is because the fundamental differences between organisations and individuals in terms of the power of collective action, life span, motivational stimulants and capability to access and pool resources (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005). To this effect, it has been attempted to address this theoretical misalignment by utilising the concept of meta-organisations pioneered by Ahrne and Brunsson (2008). This concept places its focus on the fact that organisations such as associations are composed of other organisations and opens a dialogue about various organisational dynamics of such organisations, such as their purpose, member relations and resource dependencies (Ahrne and Brunsson 2005, Ahrne and Brunsson 2010a, Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). Using GAISF (Global Association of International Sport Federations) as a case-study organisation, the research conducts qualitative study by processually examining the organisational lifecycle of GAISF over its trajectory path (D'anno and Zuckerman (1987, Pettigrew 1991). The figure below recaps the main questions the research addresses.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1 | Why and how meta-organisations emergence in the organisational field of sports?  |
| 2 | How does the field react to such emergence?  |
| 3 | What factors shapes the trajectory path of the meta-organisation?  |
| 4 | How could meta-organisations strategise in order to maintain relevance to their field and avoid potential governance failures? |

## 6.2. Objective One

As far as emergence of meta-organisation is concerned, meta-organisation theory suggests that when organisations face uncertainty, they may attempt to organise part of their environment in order to reduce uncertainty and manage their dependencies (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Organisational theories such as resource dependency theory also maintain that in order to manage such interdependencies, organisations may seek to form inter-organisational arrangements through various means such as joint ventures, mergers, acquisitions, board interlocks and strategic alliances (Pfeffer and Salancik 1978). Similarly, stakeholder theory posits that common goals, threats and legal concerns as well as shared economic interests, visions and organisational objectives motivate stakeholders to mobilise against dominant organisations (Butterfield et al. 2004). Such mobilisation may be explicitly manifested via working groups, unions and associations (Lapume, Sonpar and Litz 2008). Furthermore, from an agency perspective, it is understood that principals may formalise their effort to reduce monitoring costs on the agents through formally organised collective action (Hill and Jones 1992). However, it has to be noted this process may be subject to institutional pressures (Lee 2011), as in some fields organisational forms such as associations may be the norm.

All of the propositions were observed in the case of GAISF. It was discovered that changes in the inner context of IFs, a particular group of organisations in the same field, resulted in increased uncertainty and dependencies. In order to address these challenges, IFs created a meta-organisation in order to reduce the uncertainty in their environment and to manage their reciprocal relationships. Professionalisation and commercialisation were identified as the main two forms of transformation in the organisational field of IFs. Professionalisation was observed across three forms of organisational, occupational and systemic.

Commercialisation was also observed across the entire organisational field. Therefore, it could be proposed that these two transformational processes may increase the likelihood of emergence of meta-organisations in certain organisational fields. The emergent meta-organisations may be entirely new constructs in their field, or they may be the result of transformation of existing networks into constitutionalised organisations. It is also understood that these two processes may uncover gaps in knowledge and expertise, therefore prompting the organisations in the field to share knowledge, discuss common problems and share solutions. A meta-organisation may provide a formal forum of discussion in order to achieve such goals. Dependant organisations may particularly seek to form an association in order to promote and protect their interests when existing avenues through which they could exercise influence are not adequately effective. These findings also correspond with what is expected at the first stage of the organisational life-cycle model of D'ahunno and Zuckerman (1987).

Members in the field need to be aware of the ability to mobilise and also be willing to do so. If other groups of stakeholders in the field seek collective action, this may have an institutional effect on the mobilising stakeholders. Pre-existing networks can also stimulate the process of emergence. As it was shown in this study, GAISF was effectively a loose network that was formalised over time. The outer context also has an impact on the trajectory path of the meta-organisation. Given that the outer context is less controlled by the dominant stakeholders in the field, changes in the outer context may result in the creation of new dependencies for the dominant non-members. If it is possible for the mobilising organisations to provide resources that fulfil the new dependencies of the dominant non-members, this may create interdependencies that could ease the process of finalising, or effective continuation of, collective action



### 6.3. Objective two

When a meta-organisation emerges into a field, it has the ability to organise part of the environment and transfer it into its own environment. This may entail distorting the boundaries of power. In other words, it may impact the ability of non-member organisations to influence their environment in the same way as prior to the emergence of the meta-organisation. If such non-members witness distortion of boundaries of power, they would react to the emergence of this new meta-organisation. By inserting agency into the meta-organisation as well as splitting it into smaller but more homogenous meta-organisations, the non-member can marginalise the meta-organisation.

### 6.4. Objective three

There are factors that can further hinder the process of achieving formal collective action. The study identified heterogeneity of mobilising stakeholders as one potential obstacle, confirming propositions previously suggested by the literature (Ahrne and Brunsson 2008). Criterion of heterogeneity is another area where meta-organisation theory had a gap and this research offers insights to address this gap (Berkowitz and Dumez 2016). Although this cannot be presented as a holistic proposition, it was deduced that it is diversity in organisational interests and attitudes that drives heterogenic behaviour, more than factors such as organisational size or experience.

It was discovered that once the environment poses threats to the field and organisations share common dependencies and have similar ideologies, they may seek collective action. This may be in the form of a coalition in the first stage however as the benefit of membership becomes clearer to members and the meta-organisations visibility distorts the boundaries of power, the coalition may transform into a formal federation. These findings correspond with the expectations from the organisational lifecycle model (D'unno and Zuckerman (1987). However, given marginalising tactics by non-members and inertia from the meta-organisation itself the association does not show the signs that infer high levels of maturity. The low level of organisational maturity in the field was exposed during a process of governance failure as part of which the legitimacy of the meta-organisation was easily questioned whilst members

did not prioritise the interest of the association. This is more understandable when compared with other meta-organisations in the same field that suffered from governance failure though members did not withdraw from the association. As far as the post-critical crossroads stage is concerned, it is observed that when values of the meta-organisations are marginalised by dominant non-members, they may remain institutionalised in the meta-organisation in the form of intellectual capital, only to be re-operationalised when non-members no longer have agency meta-organisation. Nonetheless, the role of apex leaders was found to be critical, in line with suggestions of McIntyre (2009) and Brechin and Ness (2013). It was observed that effective leadership at critical stages of the organisation's lifecycle had significant impact on outcomes of progress (Hunt et al 1988). The role of leadership also links to the notion of institutional human agency (Carpenter et al. 2007) and indicates that although meta-organisation research is focused on organisations, individuals could also be examined as units of analysis.

#### 6.5. Objective four

It was discovered that whilst some members benefit from membership benefits that are economically efficient, flexible, inclusive and reliable, more resourced members may simply perceive themselves as institutionalised in a dormant meta-organisation. This links to the fact that at different stages of an organisation lifecycle, certain stakeholders become more important as they are able to provide more critical resources (Jawahar and McLaughlin 2001). In order to establish as much dependency for members as possible, it was obtained that the meta-organisation should focus on bottom up strategising not only to identify areas with potential for sustainable supply of resources, but also to increase the likelihood of consensus and lower the possibility of governance failure, which for meta-organisations, operating under network mode of governance, is affected by steering capacities and flow of information (Howlett and Ramesh 2014). This provides a starting point for discussion around how meta-organisations should strategise for future success.

## 6.7. Practical implications

The findings of this research can offer a number of practical implications, some of which are mentioned below. Newly formed meta-organisations can draw from the trajectory path of older meta-organisations in order to anticipate potential lifecycle stages ahead. Since each stage has particular challenges and opportunities, being aware of the characteristics of the next lifecycle can help directors of meta-organisations to plan accordingly.

Also, association secretariats can take note of the importance of continuous reinforcement of the purpose of the association. This can assist the secretariat in noting the current needs of the meta-organisation's members and subsequently identifying areas where the meta-organisation can add value by providing, or at least assist the provision of, critical resources. However, this must be done engaging with the member base in order to ensure ideas for future activities of the meta-organisation are generated bottom-up, rather than the executive team generating ideas and then attempting to convince the members to vote for those ideas.

Moreover, association managers should consider the long-term consequences when they create sub-groups within their meta-organisations. Often within large associations, smaller groups of members, that may share more common interests, are formed in order to facilitate a more relevant dialogue amongst members. However, it could be possible that those smaller groups cumulate legitimacy over time and eventually they may begin to replace the original meta-organisation.

## 6.8. Limitations and future research

Given that this research used a single case study, it is possible to do a multiple-case study comparing the evolution of a number of meta-organisations in sport. This would enable one to understand to what extent the factors raised in this research (e.g. heterogeneity of members, the role of context, apex leaders) can impact the trajectory path of other meta-organisations. Furthermore, such multiple-case study can examine the extent which processes such as professionalisation and commercialisation can have an impact on emergence of meta-organisation into organisational fields. Moreover, it will be interesting to study other meta-organisations, in or outside the field of sport, to investigate whether hierarchies, albeit implicit, exist or at least could be created. This study provided examples from GAISF, and to some extent OPEC, regarding sub-groups within meta-organisations. Future research can examine this further.

As far as the interplay between meta-organisations and lifecycle is concerned, this research utilised organisational lifecycle solely as an analytical tool to guide the study. Future research can utilise organisational lifecycle as a main theory and, for example, investigate what type of resources are more critical to the meta-organisation at each particular life-cycle stage. Also, as far as processes such as professionalisation and commercialisation, it would be fruitful to investigate meta-organisations in other fields to assess whether these processes are a common theme. Social media and social media influencers have grown in popularity over the past few years. One may wonder to what extent “influencing” (as a social media personality) has become professionalised and commercialised. If so, would such group of stakeholders seek collective action? Furthermore, it will be interesting to study other meta-organisations, in or outside the field of sport, to investigate whether hierarchies, albeit implicit, exist or at least could be created. This study provided examples from GAISF, and to some extent OPEC, regarding sub-groups within meta-organisations. Sport is a unique sector in the sense that meta-organisations are somewhat institutionalised in it hence sometimes the boundaries between meta-organisation and the standard “sport organisations” become blurry.

One interesting avenue for future research would be to draw on the distinction between agency and actor-hood. In this study it was revealed that agency theory has shortcoming that makes it challenging to study meta-organisations. Members as principals have, have delegated tasks to the agent, executive board and the secretariat. The secretariat of the meta-organisation itself may possess the characteristics of organisationality. It can showcase organisational elements. For example, it has explicitly recognised members who follow certain rules and procedures. The extent which they are monitored, however, are not sufficiently clear and may vary depending on the type of meta-organisation. One interesting avenue for further exploration could be examining whether in meta-organisations the secretariat can be perceived as an inherent though implicit organisation, within the meta-organisation, which may meet the criteria of first degree of organisationality whilst lacking actor-hood. Meta-organisation may make decision that may not be in interest of its members. If they do that, however, each individual member has the ability to manifest its actor-hood by conducting explicit and formal reaction. The extent which each member is capable of, or is willing to, utilise its ability to exhibit its actor-hood, however, may depend on a number of factors such as dynamics of interdependencies. Future research and explore this area further to identify the influential processes that can impact a member organisation's ability, or willingness, to manifest its actor-hood within the context of meta-organisations. Future research can explore these propositions further.

## 7. References

- Abatecola, G. (2013) 'Survival Or Failure within the Organisational Life Cycle. what Lessons for Managers?'. *Journal of General Management* 38 (4), 23-38
- Abatecola, G. (2014) 'Research in Organizational Evolution. what Comes Next?'. *European Management Journal* 32 (3)
- Abbott, A. (1991) 'The Order of Professionalization: An Empirical Analysis'. *Work and Occupations* 18 (4), 355-384
- Adizes, I. (1979) 'Organizational passages—Diagnosing and Treating Lifecycle Problems of Organizations'. *Organizational Dynamics* 8 (1)
- Agarwal, R., Sarkar, M. B., and Echambadi, R. (2002) 'The Conditioning Effect of Time on Firm Survival: An Industry Life Cycle Approach'. *Academy of Management Journal* 45 (5)
- Ahrne, G. and Brunsson, N. (2005) 'Organizations and Meta-Organizations'. *Scandinavian Journal of Management* 21 (4)
- Ahrne, G. and Brunsson, N. (2008) *Meta-Organizations* [online] . Cheltenham: Edward Elgar
- Ahrne, G. and Brunsson, N. (2011) 'Organization Outside Organizations: The Significance of Partial Organization'. *Organization* 18 (1), 83-104
- Ahrne, G. and Brunsson, N. (2012) 'How much do meta-organizations affect their members?'. in *Weltorganisationen* .VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften, Wiesbaden., 57-70.
- Ahrne, G., Brunsson, N., and Kerwer, D. (2016) 'The Paradox of Organizing States: A Meta-Organization Perspective on International Organization'. *Journal of International Organizations Studies* 7 (1), 5-24
- Ahrne, G., Brunsson, N., and Seidl, D. (2016) 'Resurrecting Organization by Going Beyond Organizations'. *European Management Journal* 34 (2)
- Alaszkiwicz, R. K. and McPhail, T. L. (1986) 'Olympic Television Rights'. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* 21 (2-3), 211-227
- Aldrich, H. (1999) *Organizations Evolving* [online] . London: Sage
- Alhojailan, M. I. (2012) 'Thematic Analysis: A Critical Review of its Process and Evaluation'. *West East Journal of Social Sciences* 1 (1), 39-47
- Amis, J. (2005) 'Interviewing for Case Study Research'. in *Qualitative Methods in Sport Studies*. ed. by Andrews, D., Mason, D. and Silk, M. Oxford: Berg, 104-138.
- Amis, J., Slack, T., and Hinings, C. R. (2002) 'Values and Organizational Change'. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science* 38 (4), 436-465
- Arber, S., Dale, A., and Proctor, M. (1988) *Secondary Data Analysis* [online] . London: Unwin Hyman
- Armistead, C., Pritchard, J., and Machin, S. (1999) 'Strategic Business Process Management for Organisational Effectiveness'. *Long Range Planning* 32 (1)
- Ascough, R.S. (2002) 'Greco-Roman Philosophic, Religious, and Voluntary Associations'. in *Community Formation in the Early Church and the Church Today*. ed. by Longenecker, R.N. Peabody: Hendrickson, 3-24.
- Auzair, S. M. and Langfield-Smith, K. (2005) 'The Effect of Service Process Type, Business Strategy and Life Cycle Stage on Bureaucratic MCS in Service Organizations'. *Management Accounting Research* 16 (4)
- Babiak, K., Thibault, L., and Willem, A. (2018) 'Mapping Research on Interorganizational Relationships in Sport Management: Current Landscape and Future Research Prospects'. *Journal of Sport Management* 32 (3)
- Bailey \*, R. (2005) 'Evaluating the Relationship between Physical Education, Sport and Social Inclusion'. *Educational Review* 57 (1)
- Bakker, E., Walker, H., Schotanus, F., and Harland, C. (2008) 'Choosing an Organisational Form: The Case of Collaborative Procurement Initiatives'. *International Journal of Procurement Management* 1 (3), 297-317
- Balser, D. and McClusky, J. (2005) 'Managing Stakeholder Relationships and Nonprofit Organization Effectiveness'. *Nonprofit Management and Leadership* 15 (3)
- Bansal, P. (.) and Corley, K. (2011) 'The Coming of Age for Qualitative Research: Embracing the Diversity of Qualitative Methods'. *Academy of Management Journal* 54 (2)

- Barnett, M. L. (2018) 'Beyond the Membership Decision: How do Trade Associations Manage Firm Involvement?'. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 27 (1), 10-12
- Barnett, W. P. and Carroll, G. R. (1993) "'How Institutional Constraints Affected the Organization of Early U.S. Telephony'. *Journal of Law, Economics, and Organization* 9 (1), 98-126
- Barratt, M., Choi, T. Y., and Li, M. (2011) 'Qualitative Case Studies in Operations Management: Trends, Research Outcomes, and Future Research Implications'. *Journal of Operations Management* 29 (4)
- Baskarada, S. (2014) 'Qualitative Case Study Guidelines'. *The Qualitative Report* 19 (40), 1-25
- Batuev, M. and Robinson, L. (2018) 'What Influences Organisational Evolution of Modern Sport: The Case of Skateboarding'. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal* 8 (5)
- Bendickson, J., Muldoon, J., Liguori, E., and Davis, P. E. (2016) 'Agency Theory: The Times, they are a-Changin''. *Management Decision* 54 (1)
- Bennett, R. J. (2000) 'The Logic of Membership of Sectoral Business Associations'. *Review of Social Economy* 58 (1)
- Berends, H. and Sydow, J. (2019). 'Introduction: Process Views on Inter-organizational Collaborations'. *Managing Inter-organizational Collaborations: Process Views (Research in the Sociology of Organizations, Vol. 64)*, Emerald Publishing Limited, 1-10.
- Berkowitz, H. (2018) 'Meta-Organizing Firms' Capabilities for Sustainable Innovation: A Conceptual Framework'. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 175
- Berkowitz, H. and Bor, S. (2018) 'Why Meta-Organizations Matter: A Response to Lawton Et Al. and Spillman'. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 27 (2), 204-211
- Berkowitz, H. and Dumez, H. (2016) 'The Concept of Meta-Organization: Issues for Management Studies'. *European Management Review* 13 (2)
- Berkowitz, H., Bucheli, M., and Dumez, H. (2017) 'Collectively Designing CSR through Meta-Organizations: A Case Study of the Oil and Gas Industry'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 143 (4)
- Bidart, C., Longo, M. E., and Mendez, A. (2013) 'Time and Process: An Operational Framework for Processual Analysis'. *European Sociological Review* 29 (4)
- Bingham, T. and Walters, G. (2013) 'Financial Sustainability within UK Charities: Community Sport Trusts and Corporate Social Responsibility Partnerships'. *International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations* 24 (3), 606-629
- Bizzi, L. and Langley, A. (2012) 'Studying Processes in and Around Networks'. *Industrial Marketing Management* 41 (2)
- Bluhm, D. J., Harman, W., Lee, T. W., and Mitchell, T. R. (2011) 'Qualitative Research in Management: A Decade of Progress'. *Journal of Management Studies* 48 (8)
- Bondas, T. and Hall, E. O. C. (2007) 'A Decade of Metasynthesis Research in Health Sciences: A Meta-Method Study'. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-Being* 2 (2)
- Bonn, I. and Pettigrew, A. (2009) 'Towards a Dynamic Theory of Boards: An Organisational Life Cycle Approach'. *Journal of Management and Organization* 15 (1), 2-16
- Boudreaux, C. J., Karahan, G., and Coats, M. (2016) 'Bend it Like FIFA: Corruption on and Off the Pitch'. *Managerial Finance* 42 (9)
- Bourdieu, P. (1990) *The logic of practice*. Stanford university press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1993) *The field of cultural production: Essays on art and literature*. Columbia University Press.
- Bowen, G. A. (2009) 'Document Analysis as a Qualitative Research Method'. *Qualitative Research Journal* 9 (2)
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998) *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development* [online] . London: Sage
- Bradbury, T. and O'Boyle I. (2017) *Understanding sport management: international perspectives*. London, Taylor & Francis.
- Brailsford, D. (1992) *British Sport: A Social History* [online] . Cambridge: Lutterworth Press
- Brandsen, T. and Pestoff, V. (2006) 'Co-Production, the Third Sector and the Delivery of Public Services'. *Public Management Review* 8 (4)
- Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) 'Using Thematic Analysis in Psychology'. *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 3 (2), 77-101
- Brechin, S. R. and Ness, G. D. (2013) 'Looking Back at the Gap: International Organizations as Organizations Twenty-Five Years Later'. *Journal of International Organizations Studies* 4 (1), 14-39
- Brès, L., Raufflet, E., and Boghossian, J. (2018) 'Pluralism in Organizations: Learning from Unconventional Forms of Organizations'. *International Journal of Management Reviews* 20 (2)

- Brown, R. D. (1973) 'The Emergence of Voluntary Associations in Massachusetts, 1760-1830'. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* 2 (2), 64-73
- Bryman, A. (1989) *Research Methods and Organization Studies* [online] . London: Routledge
- Bryman, A. (2006) 'Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Research: How is it done?'. *Qualitative Research* 6 (1), 97-113
- Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. (2009) 'The Organizational Research Context: Properties and Implications'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*. ed. by Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. 23-38.
- Butterfield, K. D., Reed, R., and Lemak, D. J. (2004) 'An Inductive Model of Collaboration from the Stakeholder's Perspective'. *Business & Society* 43 (2), 162-195
- Cameron, K. S. (1986) 'Effectiveness as Paradox: Consensus and Conflict in Conceptions of Organizational Effectiveness'. *Management Science* 32 (5)
- Cameron, K. S. and Whetten, D. A. (1981) 'Perceptions of Organizational Effectiveness Over Organizational Life Cycles'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 26 (4), 525-544
- Cameron, K. S. and Whetten, D. A. (1983) 'Models of the Organizational Life Cycle: Applications to Higher Education'. *The Review of Higher Education* 6 (4)
- Capaldo, A. and Petruzzelli, A. M. (2014) 'Partner Geographic and Organizational Proximity and the Innovative Performance of Knowledge-Creating Alliances'. *European Management Review* 11 (1)
- Carlsen, B. and Glenton, C. (2011) 'What about N? A Methodological Study of Sample-Size Reporting in Focus Group Studies'. *BMC Medical Research Methodology* 11 (1)
- Carpenter, V. L., Cheng, R. H., and Feroz, E. H. (2007) 'Toward an Empirical Institutional Governance Theory: Analyses of the Decisions by the 50 US State Governments to Adopt Generally Accepted Accounting Principles'. *Corporate Ownership & Control* 4 (4), 42-59
- Casciaro, T. and Piskorsk, M. J. (2005) 'Power Imbalance, Mutual Dependence, and Constraint Absorption: A Closer Look at Resource Dependence Theory'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 50 (2), 167-199
- Cassell, C. (2009) 'Interviews in Organizational Research'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*. ed. by Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. 500-515.
- Chappelet, J. and Kupler-Mabbot, B. (2008) *The International Olympic Committee and the Olympic System: The Governance of World Sport* [online] . Oxon: Routledge
- Charmaz, K. (2006) *Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis* [online] . London: Sage
- Chaudhury, A. S., Ventresca, M. J., Thornton, T. F., Helfgott, A., Sova, C., Baral, P., Rasheed, T., and Lighthart, J. (2016) 'Emerging Meta-Organisations and Adaptation to Global Climate Change: Evidence from Implementing Adaptation in Nepal, Pakistan and Ghana'. *Global Environmental Change* 38
- Cheah, K. S. L. (2015) 'Processual Analysis on Organizational Decision-Making: A Practical Approach to Explore Teachers' Decision-Making and Classroom Management in a Private Secondary School in Subang, Selangor'. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 172
- Chiu, R. and Yen, D. C. (2015) 'Application of Organizational Life Cycle Theory for Port Reform Initiatives in Taiwan'. *Research in Transportation Business & Management* 14
- Christopher, J. (2010) 'Corporate governance—A Multi-Theoretical Approach to Recognizing the Wider Influencing Forces Impacting on Organizations'. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting* 21 (8)
- Clark, E. and Soulsby, A. (2007) 'Understanding Top Management and Organizational Change through Demographic and Processual Analysis'. *Journal of Management Studies* 44 (6)
- Colyer, S. (2000) 'Organizational Culture in Selected Western Australian Sport Organizations'. *Journal of Sport Management* 14 (4)
- Considine, M. and Lewis, J. M. (1999) 'Governance at Ground Level: The Frontline Bureaucrat in the Age of Markets and Networks'. *Public Administration Review* 59 (6)
- Cook, G. M. and Fletcher, D. (2017) 'Sport Psychology in an Olympic Swimming Team: Perceptions of the Management and Coaches'. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice* 48 (5)
- Corbin, J. and Strauss, A. (2008) *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* [online] 3rd edn. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Cordano, M., Frieze, I. H., and Ellis, K. M. (2004) 'Entangled Affiliations and Attitudes: An Analysis of the Influences on Environmental Policy Stakeholders' Behavioral Intentions'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 49 (1)
- Cornforth, C. (Ed.). (2003). *The governance of public and non-profit organisations: What do boards do?*. London: Routledge
- Corti, L. and Thompson, P. (2004) 'Secondary analysis of archive data'. in *Qualitative Research Practice*. ed by C. Seale, Gobo, G., Gubrium, F. and Silverman, D. London: Sage Publications Ltd



- Creswell, J. A. (1998) 'Five Qualitative Traditions of Inquiry'. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design. Choosing among Five Traditions*, 47-72
- Cropper, S. and Bor, S. (2018) '(Un)Bounding the Meta-Organization: Co-Evolution and Compositional Dynamics of a Health Partnership'. *Administrative Sciences* 8 (3)
- D'Aunno, T. A. and Zuckerman, H. S. (1987) 'A Life-Cycle Model of Organizational Federations: The Case of Hospitals'. *Academy of Management Review* 12 (3)
- Davis, G. F. and Cobb, J. A. (2010) 'Resource Dependence Theory: Past and Future'. in *Stanford's Organization Theory Renaissance, 1970-2000*. ed. by Schoonhoven, C. B. and Dobbin, F. Bingley: Emerald, 1970-2000
- de Coninck, F. and Godard, F. (1990) 'L'Approche Biographique À L'Épreuve De L'Interprétation: Les Formes Temporelles De La Causalité'. *Revue Française De Sociologie* 31 (1), 23-53
- Deetz, S. (2009) 'Organizational Research as Alternative Ways of Attending to and Talking About Structures and Activities'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*. ed. by Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. 1-18.
- Dencombe, M. (2007) *The Good Research Guide* [online] 3rd edn. Buckingham: Open University Press
- Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (2011) 'Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research'. in *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. by Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. London: Sage, 1-19.
- DiMaggio, P. (1988) 'Interest and Agency in Institutional Theory'. *Institutional Patterns and Organizations Culture and Environment*, 3-21
- DiMaggio, P. J. and Powell, W. W. (1983) 'The Iron Cage Revisited: Institutional Isomorphism and Collective Rationality in Organizational Fields'. *American Sociological Review* 48 (2)
- DiMaggio, Paul J. and Powell, Walter W. (1991) 'Introduction.' in *The New Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis*. ed. by DiMaggio, P. and Powell, W. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press. 1-40.
- Dixon, J. (2002) *Responses to Governance: The Governing of Corporations, Societies and the World* [online] . Westport, CT: Praeger
- Dodds, M. (2016) 'Revisiting the Salt Lake City Olympic Scandal : Would the Outcome be Different Today?'. *Choregia: Sports Management International* 12 (1), 1-14
- Dodge, H. R. and Robbins, J. E. (1992) 'An Empirical Investigation of the Organizational Life Cycle'. *Journal of Small Business Management* 30 (1), 27-37
- Dodge, H. R., Fullerton, S., and Robbins, J. E. (1994) 'Stage of the Organizational Life Cycle and Competition as Mediators of Problem Perception for Small Businesses'. *Strategic Management Journal* 15 (2)
- Dolles, H. and Söderman, S. (2011) *Sport as a Business* [online] . London: Palgrave Macmillan
- Doucette, W. R. (1997) 'Influences on Member Commitment to Group Purchasing Organizations'. *Journal of Business Research* 40 (3)
- Dowling, M., Edwards, J., and Washington, M. (2014) 'Understanding the Concept of Professionalisation in Sport Management Research'. *Sport Management Review* 17 (4)
- Dowling, M., Leopkey, B., and Smith, L. (2018) 'Governance in Sport: A Scoping Review'. *Journal of Sport Management* 32 (5)
- Drees, J. M. and Heugens, Pursey P. M. A. R. (2013) 'Synthesizing and Extending Resource Dependence Theory: A Meta-Analysis'. *Journal of Management* 39 (6), 1666-1698
- Duanmu, J. and Fai, F. M. (2007) 'A Processual Analysis of Knowledge Transfer: From Foreign MNEs to Chinese Suppliers'. *International Business Review* 16 (4)
- Dumez, H. (2005) 'De L'Ennui Organisationnel'. *Le Libellio D'AEGIS* 1, 1-2
- Edwards, A. and Skinner, J. (2009) *Qualitative Research in Sport Management*. [online] . Oxford: Elsevier
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989a) 'Building Theories from Case Study Research'. *Academy of Management Review* 14 (4)
- Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989b) 'Agency Theory: An Assessment and Review'. *Academy of Management Review* 14 (1)
- Emirbayer, M. and Mische, A. (1998) 'What is Agency?'. *American Journal of Sociology* 103 (4)
- Emmett, J. (2015) *SportAccord fallout – mad Marius or Vizer the Bold?* [online] available from <[http://www.sportspromedia.com/sportspro\\_blog/sportaccord\\_fallout\\_mad\\_marius\\_or\\_vizer\\_the\\_bold](http://www.sportspromedia.com/sportspro_blog/sportaccord_fallout_mad_marius_or_vizer_the_bold)> [20 July 2015]
- Enjolras, B. (2008) 'A Governance-Structure Approach to Voluntary Organizations'. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 38 (5), 295-315

- Evans, O. (2015) One-to-One Podcast: Gian-Franco Kasper, *Sport Business International* [online] available from <<http://files.sportbusiness.com/files/podcast/Gian-Franco%20Kasper.mp3>> [10 July 2015]
- Fassin, Y. (2012) 'Stakeholder Management, Reciprocity and Stakeholder Responsibility'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 109 (1), 83-96
- Fereday, J. and Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006) 'Demonstrating Rigor using Thematic Analysis: A Hybrid Approach of Inductive and Deductive Coding and Theme Development'. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods* 5 (1)
- Ferkins, L. and Shilbury, D. (2010) 'Developing Board Strategic Capability in Sport Organisations: The National–regional Governing Relationship'. *Sport Management Review* 13 (3)
- Ferkins, L. and Shilbury, D. (2015a) 'Board Strategic Balance: An Emerging Sport Governance Theory'. *Sport Management Review* 18 (4)
- Ferkins, L. and Shilbury, D. (2015b) 'The Stakeholder Dilemma in Sport Governance: Toward the Notion of “Stakeowner”'. *Journal of Sport Management* 29 (1)
- Ferkins, L., Shilbury, D., and McDonald, G. (2005) 'The Role of the Board in Building Strategic Capability: Towards an Integrated Model of Sport Governance Research'. *Sport Management Review* 8 (3)
- Ferreira, J. J. M., Azevedo, S. G., and Cruz, R. P. (2011) 'SME Growth in the Service Sector: A Taxonomy Combining Life-Cycle and Resource-Based Theories'. *The Service Industries Journal* 31 (2)
- FIFA (2014) Financial Report 2014<<https://resources.fifa.com/image/upload/xzshsoe2ayttyquuxhq0.pdf>> [9 February 2019]
- FIFA (2018) *Financial Report 2018* [online] available from
- FIFA (2018) *Financial Report 2018* [online] available from
- Francis, H. and Sinclair, J. (2003) 'A Processual Analysis of HRM-Based Change'. *Organization* 10 (4), 685-706
- Franco, M. and Pessoa, N. (2014) 'University Sports Partnerships as Collaborative Entrepreneurship'. *Administration & Society* 46 (8)
- Frandsen, F. and Johansen, W. (2018) 'Voices in Conflict? the Crisis Communication of Meta-Organizations'. *Management Communication Quarterly* 32 (1), 90-120
- Freeman, R. E. (1984) *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Perspective* [online] . Boston: Pitman
- Freeman, R. E. (1999) 'Divergent Stakeholder Theory'. *Academy of Management Review* 24 (2)
- Freeman, R. E. (2004) 'The Stakeholder Approach Revisited'. *Zeitschrift Für Wirtschafts- Und Unternehmensethik* 5 (3), 228-254
- Freeman, R. E., Harrison, J. S., and Wicks, A. C. (2007) *Managing for Stakeholders: Survival, Reputation, and Success* [online] . London: Yale University Press
- Friedman, A. L. and Miles, S. (2006) *Stakeholders: Theory and Practice* [online] . Oxford: University Press
- García-Horta, J. B. and Guerra-Ramos, M. T. (2009) 'The use of CAQDAS in Educational Research: Some Advantages, Limitations and Potential Risks'. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education* 32 (2)
- Garrido, M. J. and Camarero, C. (2009) 'Assessing the Impact of Organizational Learning and Innovation on Performance in Cultural Organizations'. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing* 15 (3), 215-232
- Gazley, B. and Brudney, J. L. (2007) 'The Purpose (and Perils) of Government-Nonprofit Partnership'. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 36 (3), 389-415
- Geeraert, A. and Drieskens, E. (2015) 'The EU Controls FIFA and UEFA: A Principal–agent Perspective'. *Journal of European Public Policy* 22 (10)
- Geeraert, A., Alm, J., and Groll, M. (2014) 'Good Governance in International Sport Organizations: An Analysis of the 35 Olympic Sport Governing Bodies'. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* 6 (3)
- Giddens, A. (1991) *Modernity and Self-Identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age* [online] . Cambridge: Polity Press
- Gilbert, D. U. and Rasche, A. (2008) 'Opportunities and Problems of Standardized Ethics Initiatives—a Stakeholder Theory Perspective'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 82 (3), 755-773
- Girginov, V., Papadimitriou, D., and López De D'Amico, R. (2006) 'Cultural Orientations of Sport Managers'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 6 (1)
- Goodwin, M. and Grix, J. (2011) 'Bringing Structures Back in: The ‘governance Narrative’, the ‘decentred Approach’ and ‘asymmetrical Network Governance’ in the Education and Sport Policy Communities'. *Public Administration* 89 (2)

- Gratton, C. and Jones, I. (2010) *Researching Methods for Sport Studies* [online] 2nd edn. Oxon: Routledge
- Gratton, C. and solberg, H. A. (2007) 'The Economics of Professional Sport and the Media'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 7 (4)
- Gratton, C., Liu, D., Ramchandani, G., and Wilson, D. (2012) *The Global Economics of Sport* [online] 2nd edn. London: Routledge
- Green, J. and Thorogood, N. (2018) *Qualitative Methods for Health Research* [online] . London: Sage
- Greenwood, R., Suddaby, R., and Hinings, C. R. (2002) 'Theorizing Change: The Role of Professional Associations in the Transformation of Institutionalized Fields'. *Academy of Management Journal* 45 (1)
- Greiner, L. E. (1998) 'Evolution and Revolution as Organizations Grow'. *Harvard Business Review* 76 (3), 55-64
- Grix, J. (2013) 'Sport Politics and the Olympics'. *Political Studies Review* 11 (1), 15-25
- Grix, J. and Phillpots, L. (2011) 'Revisiting the 'Governance Narrative''. *Public Policy and Administration* 26 (1)
- Grothe-Hammer, M. (2019) 'Organization without Actorhood: Exploring a Neglected Phenomenon'. *European Management Journal* 37 (3)
- Grothe-Hammer, M. and Kohl, S. (2020) 'The Decline of Organizational Sociology? an Empirical Analysis of Research Trends in Leading Journals Across Half a Century'. *Current Sociology* 68 (4)
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., and Johnson, L. (2006) 'How Many Interviews are enough? an Experiment with Data Saturation and Variability'. *Field Methods* 18 (1), 59-82
- Gulati, R., Puranam, P., and Tushman, M. (2012) 'Meta-Organization Design: Rethinking Design in Interorganizational and Community Contexts'. *Strategic Management Journal* 33 (6)
- Guttmann, A. (2002) *The Olympics: A History of the Modern Games* [online] . Chicago: University of Illinois Press
- Hall, P. A. and Soskice, D. (2001) *Varieties of Capitalism* [online] . Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Hamadache, K. (2015) 'Reintroducing Power and Struggles within Organisational Fields'. in *Pierre Bourdieu, Organization, and Management*. ed. by Tatli, A., Özbilgin, M. F., and Karatas-Ozkan, M. London: Routledge, 97-118
- Hamel, G. (1991) 'Competition for Competence and Interpartner Learning within International Strategic Alliances'. *Strategic Management Journal* 12
- Hanks, S. H., Watson, C. J., Jansen, E., and Chandler, G. N. (1994) 'Tightening the Life-Cycle Construct: A Taxonomic Study of Growth Stage Configurations in High-Technology Organizations'. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 18 (2), 5-29
- Hart, S. L. (1971) 'Axiology--Theory of Values'. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research* 32 (1)
- Hayashi Jr, P., Abib, G., and Hoppen, N. (2019) 'Validity in Qualitative Research: A Processual Approach'. *The Qualitative Report* 24 (1), 98-112
- Heine, K. and Kerk, M. (2017) 'Conflict Resolution in Meta-Organizations: The Peculiar Role of Arbitration'. *Journal of Organization Design* 6 (1)
- Heron, J. (1996) *Co-Operative Inquiry: Research into the Human Condition* [online] . London: Sage
- Heugens, Pursey P. M. A. R. and Oosterhout, H. (. v. (2002) 'The Confines of Stakeholder Management: Evidence from the Dutch Manufacturing Sector'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 40 (4)
- Hill, C. W. L. and Jones, T. M. (1992) 'Stakeholder-Agency Theory'. *Journal of Management Studies* 29 (2)
- Hillman, A. J., Withers, M. C., and Collins, B. J. (2009) 'Resource Dependence Theory: A Review'. *Journal of Management* 35 (6), 1404-1427
- Hirsch, P. M. (1997) 'Review Essay: Sociology without Social Structure: Neoinstitutional Theory Meets Brave New World'. *American Journal of Sociology* 102 (6)
- Hoffman, A. J. (1999) 'Institutional Evolution and Change: Environmentalism and the U.S. Chemical Industry'. *Academy of Management Journal* 42 (4)
- Hoffman, A. J. and Ocasio, W. (2001) 'Not all Events are Attended Equally: Toward a Middle-Range Theory of Industry Attention to External Events'. *Organization Science* 12 (4)
- Holden, M. T. and Lynch, P. (2004) 'Choosing the Appropriate Methodology: Understanding Research Philosophy'. *The Marketing Review* 4 (4)
- Horch, H. (1994) 'Does Government Financing have a Detrimental Effect on the Autonomy of Voluntary Associations? Evidence from German Sports Clubs'. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* 29 (3), 269-285
- Horch, H. (2018) 'The Intermediary Organisational Structure of Voluntary Associations'. *Voluntary Sector Review* 9 (1)
- Horch, H. and Schütte, N. (2009) 'Pressure and Obstacles to the Employment of Paid Managers in Voluntary Sports Clubs and Federations in Germany'. *European Journal for Sport and Society* 6 (2)

- Houlihan, B. and Green, M. (2009) 'Modernization and Sport: The Reform of Sport England and UK Sport'. *Public Administration* 87 (3)
- Howlett, M. and Ramesh, M. (2014) 'The Two Orders of Governance Failure: Design Mismatches and Policy Capacity Issues in Modern Governance'. *Policy and Society* 33 (4)
- Hoyer, R. and Auld, C. (2001) 'Measuring Board Performance in Nonprofit Sport Organisations'. *Australian Journal of Volunteering* 6 (2), 109-116
- Hoyer, R. and Cuskelly, G. (2007) *Sport Governance* [online] . Sydney: Elsevier
- Hoyer, R., Smith, A. C., Nicholson, M., and Stewart, B. (2015) *Sport Management: Principles and Applications* [online] 4th edn. London: Routledge
- Huber, B., Sweeney, E., and Smyth, A. (2004) 'Purchasing Consortia and Electronic Markets-A Procurement Direction in Integrated Supply Chain Management'. *Electronic Markets* 14 (4), 284-294
- Hunt, J. G., Baliga, B. R., and Peterson, M. F. (1988) 'Strategic Apex Leader Scripts and an Organisational Life Cycle Approach to Leadership and Excellence'. *Journal of Management Development* 7 (5)
- Jack, S., Dodd, S. D., and Anderson, A. R. (2008) 'Change and the Development of Entrepreneurial Networks Over Time: A Processual Perspective'. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 20 (2)
- Javalgi, R. ( G. and Dion, P. (1999) 'A Life Cycle Segmentation Approach to Marketing Financial Products and Services'. *The Service Industries Journal* 19 (3)
- Jawahar, I. M. and McLaughlin, G. L. (2001) 'Toward a Descriptive Stakeholder Theory: An Organizational Life Cycle Approach'. *Academy of Management Review* 26 (3)
- Jegers, M. (2008) *Managerial Economics of Non-Profit Organizations* [online] . London: Routledge
- Jennings, A. (2011) 'Investigating Corruption in Corporate Sport: The IOC and FIFA'. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* 46 (4), 387-398
- Joffe, H. and Yardley, L. (2004) 'Content and thematic analysis'. *Research methods for clinical and health psychology*, 56, 68.
- John, C. H. S. (2005) 'Multi-Theoretical Mixed-Level Research in Strategic Management'. in *Research Methodology in Strategy and Management*. ed. by Ketchen, D. J. and Berg, D. D. London: Elsevier
- Johnson, P. and Clark, M. (2006) 'Editors' introduction: Mapping the terrain: An overview of business and management research methodologies. in *Business and Management Research Methodologies*. ed. by Johnson, P. and Clark, M. London: Sage, xxv-iv.
- Kaler, J. (2002) 'Morality and Strategy in Stakeholder Identification'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 39 (1), 91-100
- Kazanjian, R. K. (1988) 'Relation of Dominant Problems to Stages of Growth in Technology-Based New Ventures'. *Academy of Management Journal* 31 (2)
- Keleman, M. and Rumens, N. (2008) *An Introduction to Critical Management Research*. [online] . London: Sage
- Kerwer, D. (2013) 'International Organizations as Meta-Organizations: The Case of the European Union'. *Journal of International Organizations Studies* 4 (2), 40-53
- Ketokivi, M. and Mantere, S. (2010) 'Two Strategies for Inductive Reasoning in Organizational Research'. *Academy of Management Review* 35 (2)
- Kikulis, L. M. (2000) 'Continuity and Change in Governance and Decision Making in National Sport Organizations: Institutional Explanations'. *Journal of Sport Management* 14 (4)
- Kikulis, L. M., Slack, T., and Hinings, B. (1992) 'Institutionally Specific Design Archetypes: A Framework for Understanding Change in National Sport Organizations'. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* 27 (4), 343-368
- Kikulis, L. M., Slack, T., and Hinings, B. (1995a) 'Does Decision Making make a Difference? Patterns of Change within Canadian National Sport Organizations'. *Journal of Sport Management* 9 (3)
- Kikulis, L. M., Slack, T., and Hinings, C. R. (1995b) 'Toward an Understanding of the Role of Agency and Choice in the Changing Structure of Canada's National Sport Organizations'. *Journal of Sport Management* 9 (2)
- Killanin, B. M. M. (1983) *My Olympic Years* [online] . Michigan: Secker & Warburg
- Kim, T., Chang, K., and Jae Ko, Y. (2010) 'Determinants of Organisational Identification and Supportive Intentions'. *Journal of Marketing Management* 26 (5-6)
- Kimberly, J. R. and Miles, R. H. (1980) *The Organizational Life Cycle: Issues in the Creation, Transformation, and Decline of Organizations* [online] . San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers
- King, N. (2004a) 'Using Interviews in Qualitative Research'. in *Essential Guide Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*. ed. by Cassell, C. and Symon, G. London: Sage. 11-22
- King, N. (2004b) 'Using Templates in the Thematic Analysis of Text'. in *Essential Guide Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research*. ed. by Cassell, C. and Symon, G. London: Sage. 256-270.
- King, N. (2014) *Sport Governance: An Introduction* [online] . London: Routledge

- King, N. (2016) *Sport Governance: An Introduction* [online] . London: Routledge
- Klepper, S. (1996) 'Entry, Exit, Growth, and Innovation Over the Product Life Cycle'. *The American Economic Review*, 562-583
- Klijn, E. and Koppenjan, J. (2012) 'Governance Network Theory: Past, Present and Future'. *Policy & Politics* 40 (4)
- Knobben, J. and Oerlemans, L. A. G. (2006) 'Proximity and Inter-Organizational Collaboration: A Literature Review'. *International Journal of Management Reviews* 8 (2)
- Koch, M. (2009) 'Autonomization of IGOs'. *International Political Sociology* 3 (4)
- Kogut, B. (1988) 'A Study of the Life Cycle of Joint Ventures'. *Management International Review* 28 (4), 39-52
- König, A., Schulte, M., and Enders, A. (2012) 'Inertia in Response to Non-Paradigmatic Change: The Case of Meta-Organizations'. *Research Policy* 41 (8)
- Labuschagne, A. (2003) 'Qualitative Research: Airy Fairy Or Fundamental'. *The Qualitative Report* 8 (1), 100-103
- Laplume, A. O., Sonpar, K., and Litz, R. A. (2008) 'Stakeholder Theory: Reviewing a Theory that Moves Us'. *Journal of Management* 34 (6), 1152-1189
- Lawton, T. C., Rajwani, T., and Minto, A. (2018) 'Why Trade Associations Matter: Exploring Function, Meaning, and Influence'. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 27 (1), 5-9
- Lee, D., Kim, S., and Cha, S. (2011) 'Evaluating the Effectiveness of Research Centers and Institutes in Universities: Disciplines and Life Cycle Stages'. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy* 11 (1), 119-137
- Lee, J., Lee, K., and Rho, S. (2002) 'An Evolutionary Perspective on Strategic Group Emergence: A Genetic Algorithm-Based Model'. *Strategic Management Journal* 23 (8)
- Lee, M. P. (2011) 'Configuration of External Influences: The Combined Effects of Institutions and Stakeholders on Corporate Social Responsibility Strategies'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 102 (2)
- Lee, T. W. (1999) *Using Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research* [online] . London: Sage
- Leech, N. L. and Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2011) 'Beyond Constant Comparison Qualitative Data Analysis: Using NVivo'. *School Psychology Quarterly* 26 (1)
- Lesley, F., McDonald, G., and Shilbury, D. (2010) 'A Model for Improving Board Performance: The Case of a National Sport Organisation'. *Journal of Management and Organization* 16 (4), 601-621
- Lester, D. L., Parnell, J. A., and Carraher, S. (2003) 'Organizational Life Cycle: A Five-Stage Empirical Scale'. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis* 11 (4)
- Lester, D. L., Parnell, J. A., and Menefee, M. L. (2009) 'Organizational Life Cycle and Innovation among Entrepreneurial Enterprises'. *Journal of Small Business Strategy* 19 (2), 37-49
- Lewis, V. L. and Churchill, N. C. (1983) 'The Five Stages of Small Business Growth'. *Harvard Business Review* 61 (3)
- Lichtenstein, G. A. and Lyons, T. S. (2008) 'Revisiting the Business Life-Cycle: Proposing an Actionable Model for Assessing and Fostering Entrepreneurship'. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation* 9 (4), 241-250
- Lin, B. and Darling, J. (1997) 'A Processual Analysis of Customer Service Training'. *Journal of Services Marketing* 11 (3)
- Lowndes, V. and Skelcher, C. (1998) 'The Dynamics of Multi-Organizational Partnerships: An Analysis of Changing Modes of Governance'. *Public Administration* 76 (2)
- Mael, F. and Ashforth, B. E. (1992) 'Alumni and their Alma Mater: A Partial Test of the Reformulated Model of Organizational Identification'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 13 (2)
- Maennig, W. (2005) 'Corruption in International Sports and Sport Management: Forms, Tendencies, Extent and Countermeasures'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 5 (2)
- Maitland, A., Hills, L. A., and Rhind, D. J. (2015) 'Organisational Culture in Sport – A Systematic Review'. *Sport Management Review* 18 (4)
- Malcourant, E., Vas, A., and Zintz, T. (2015) 'World Anti-Doping Agency: A Meta-Organizational Perspective'. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal* 5 (5)
- Malterud, K., Siersma, V. D., and Guassora, A. D. (2016) 'Sample Size in Qualitative Interview Studies: Guided by Information Power'. *Qualitative Health Research* 26 (13), 1753-1760
- Mantere, S. and Ketokivi, M. (2013) 'Reasoning in Organization Science'. *Academy of Management Review* 38 (1)
- March, J. and Simon, H. (1958) *Organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- March, J. and Simon, H. (1958) *Organizations* [online] . New York: Wiley
- Mason, D. S., Thibault, L., and Misener, L. (2006) 'An Agency Theory Perspective on Corruption in Sport: The Case of the International Olympic Committee'. *Journal of Sport Management* 20 (1)
- Mason, J. (1996) *Qualitative Researching* [online] . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

- Mason, M. (2010) 'Sample Size and Saturation in PhD Studies using Qualitative Interviews'. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research* 11 (3)
- McGlew, J. F. (1999) 'Politics on the Margins: The Athenian "Hetaireiai" in 415 BC'. *Historia: Zeitschrift Für Alte Geschichte* H 1, 1-22
- McIntyre, S. G. (2009). Creating and Sustaining Meta Organizational Memory: A Case Study. In *Building Organizational Memories: Will You Know What You Knew?*. IGI Global, 184-200.
- Merrien, F. (1998) 'Governance and Modern Welfare States'. *International Social Science Journal* 50 (155)
- Miles, M. B. and Huberman, A. M. (1994) *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook* [online] . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Miles, S. (2017) 'Stakeholder Theory Classification: A Theoretical and Empirical Evaluation of Definitions'. *Journal of Business Ethics* 142 (3), 437-459
- Miller, C. C., Cardinal, L. B., and Glick, W. H. (1997) 'Retrospective Reports in Organizational Research: A Reexamination of Recent Evidence'. *Academy of Management Journal* 40 (1)
- Miller, D. and Friesen, P. H. (1984) 'A Longitudinal Study of the Corporate Life Cycle'. *Management Science* 30 (10)
- Mintzberg, H. (1984) 'Power and Organization Life Cycles'. *Academy of Management Review* 9 (2)
- Mitnick, B. M. (1992) 'The Theory of Agency and Organizational Analysis'. in *The Ruffin Series in Business Ethics*. ed. by Anon
- Mitsakis, F. V. (2014) 'Human Resource Management (HRM), Economic Crisis (EC) and Business Life Cycle (BLC): A Literature Review and Discussion'. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies* 4 (1)
- Morgan, D. L. (1993) 'Qualitative Content Analysis: A Guide to Paths Not Taken'. *Qualitative Health Research* 3 (1), 112-121
- Morse, J. M. (1991). Strategies for sampling. in *Qualitative nursing research—A contemporary dialogue*. ed by Morse, J.M. Newbury Park, CA: Sage. 127–145
- Mugurusi, G. and Bals, L. (2017) 'A Processual Analysis of the Purchasing and Supply Organization in Transition: The Impact of Offshoring'. *Operations Management Research* 10 (1-2)
- Nagel, S., Schlesinger, T., Bayle, E., and Giauque, D. (2015) 'Professionalisation of Sport Federations – a Multi-Level Framework for Analysing Forms, Causes and Consequences'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 15 (4)
- Newman, M. and Noble, F. (1990) 'User Involvement as an Interaction Process: A Case Study'. *Information Systems Research* 1 (1)
- Nienhüser, W. (2008) 'Resource Dependence Theory-how Well does it Explain Behavior of Organizations?'. *Management Revue* 19 (1), 9-32
- O'Boyle, I. and Shilbury, D. (2016) 'Exploring Issues of Trust in Collaborative Sport Governance'. *Journal of Sport Management* 30 (1)
- O'Brien, D. and Slack, T. (2004) 'The Emergence of a Professional Logic in English Rugby Union: The Role of Isomorphic and Diffusion Processes'. *Journal of Sport Management* 18 (1)
- O'reilly, M. and Parker, N. (2013) 'Unsatisfactory Saturation': A Critical Exploration of the Notion of Saturated Sample Sizes in Qualitative Research'. *Qualitative Research* 13 (2), 190-197
- O'Brien, D. and Slack, T. (2003) 'An Analysis of Change in an Organizational Field: The Professionalization of English Rugby Union'. *Journal of Sport Management* 17 (4)
- Oghojafor, B. E. A., Muo, F. I., and Aduloju, S. A. (2012) "'Organisational Effectiveness: Whom and what do we Believe?". *Advances in Management and Applied Economics* 2 (4), 81-108
- Oliver, P. (2008) *Writing Your Thesis* [online] 2nd edn. London: Sage
- Olympic Solidarity (2014) *Sport Administration Manual* [online] available from <http://sportimpact.org/sport-administration-manual/> [11 December 2015]
- Papadimitriou, D. and Taylor, P. (2000) 'Organisational Effectiveness of Hellenic National Sports Organisations: A Multiple Constituency Approach'. *Sport Management Review* 3 (1)
- Parent, M. M. and Hoye, R. (2018) 'The Impact of Governance Principles on Sport Organisations' Governance Practices and Performance: A Systematic Review'. *Cogent Social Sciences* 4 (1)
- Parker, L. D. (2007) 'Boardroom Strategizing in Professional Associations: Processual and Institutional Perspectives'. *Journal of Management Studies* 44 (8), 1145-1480
- Parmigiani, A. and Rivera-Santos, M. (2011) 'Clearing a Path through the Forest: A Meta-Review of Interorganizational Relationships'. *Journal of Management* 37 (4)
- Perakyla, A. (2004) 'Reliability and validity in research based on naturally occurring social interaction'. in *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice*. ed. by Silverman, D. Sage: London. 283-304.

- Pettigrew, A. M. (1979) 'On Studying Organizational Cultures'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 24 (4)
- Pettigrew, A. M. (1987) 'Context and Action in the Transformation of the Firm'. *Journal of Management Studies* 24 (6)
- Pettigrew, A. M. (1990) 'Longitudinal Field Research on Change: Theory and Practice'. *Organization Science* 1 (3)
- Pettigrew, A. M. (1992) 'The Character and Significance of Strategy Process Research'. *Strategic Management Journal* 24 (6), 649-670
- Pettigrew, A. M. (1997) 'What is a Processual Analysis?'. *Scandinavian Journal of Management* 13 (4)
- Pettigrew, A. M. (2012) 'Context and Action in the Transformation of the Firm: A Reprise'. *Journal of Management Studies* 49 (7)
- Pettigrew, A. M. (2013) 'The Conduct of Qualitative Research in Organizational Settings'. *Corporate Governance: An International Review* 21 (2)
- Pettigrew, A. M., Woodman, R. W., and Cameron, K. S. (2001) 'Studying Organizational Change and Development: Challenges for Future Research'. *Academy of Management Journal* 44 (4)
- Pfeffer, J. and Salancik, G. (1978) *The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective* [online] . New York: Harper & Row
- Phelps, R., Adams, R., and Bessant, J. (2007) 'Life Cycles of Growing Organizations: A Review with Implications for Knowledge and Learning'. *International Journal of Management Reviews* 9 (1)
- Philips, N. and Di Domenico, M. (2009) 'Discourse Analysis in Organizational Research: Methods and Debates'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*. ed. by Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. 549-565.
- Phillips, R. (2003) *Stakeholder Theory and Organization Ethics* [online] . San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler
- Posner, E. A., Spier, K. E., and Vermeule, A. (2010) 'Divide and Conquer'. *Journal of Legal Analysis* 2 (2)
- Post, J. E., Preston, L. E., and Sauter-Sachs, S. (2002) *Redefining the Corporation: Stakeholder Management and Organizational Wealth* [online] . Palo Alto: Stanford University Press
- Potter, J. (2004) 'Discourse analysis as a way of analysing naturally occurring talk'. in *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice*. ed. by Silverman, D. Sage: London. 200-221.
- Pounder, J. S. (2001) "New Leadership" and University Organisational Effectiveness: Exploring the Relationship'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal* 22 (6)
- Pratt, M. G. (2008) 'Fitting Oval Pegs into Round Holes: Tensions in Evaluating and Publishing Qualitative Research in Top-Tier North American Journals'. *Organizational Research Methods* 11 (3), 481-509
- Quinn, R. E. and Cameron, K. (1983) 'Organizational Life Cycles and Shifting Criteria of Effectiveness: Some Preliminary Evidence'. *Management Science* 29 (1)
- Radnejad, A. B., Vredenburg, H., and Woiceshyn, J. (2017) 'Meta-Organizing for Open Innovation Under Environmental and Social Pressures in the Oil Industry'. *Technovation* 66
- Rapley, T. (2007) *Doing Conversation, Discourse and Document Analysis* [online] . London: Sage
- Redshaw, B. (2000) 'Evaluating Organisational Effectiveness'. *Industrial and Commercial Training* 32 (7)
- Robinson, L. (2008). 'The business of sport'. In Houlihan (Ed.), *Sport and society* (207–328). London: Sage Publications.
- Robinson, O. C. (2014) 'Sampling in Interview-Based Qualitative Research: A Theoretical and Practical Guide'. *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 11 (1)
- Robson, C. (2002) *Real World Research: A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner-Researchers* [online] . Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell
- Rosenau, J. N. (1995) *Governance in the Twenty-First Century* [online]
- Ross, S. A. (1973) 'The Economic Theory of Agency: The Principal's Problem'. *American Economic Review* 63 (2), 134-139
- Rotolo, T. (2000) 'A Time to Join, A Time to Quit: The Influence of Life Cycle Transitions on Voluntary Association Membership'. *Social Forces* 78 (3)
- Rowley, T. and Berman, S. (2000) 'A Brand New Brand of Corporate Social Performance'. *Business & Society* 39 (4), 397-418
- Rowley, T. I. and Moldoveanu, M. (2003) 'When Will Stakeholder Groups Act? an Interest- and Identity-Based Model of Stakeholder Group Mobilization'. *Academy of Management Review* 28 (2)
- Sandelowski, M. (2010) 'What's in a Name? Qualitative Description Revisited'. *Research in Nursing & Health* 33 (1)

- Santos, F. M. and Eisenhardt, K. M. (2005) 'Organizational Boundaries and Theories of Organization'. *Organization Science* 16 (5)
- Saunders, M., L. and Thornhill, A. (2016) *Research Methods for Business Students* [online] 7th edn. Harlow: Pearson
- Schlegel, D. (2015). 'Research philosophy and ethics'. In *Cost-of-capital in managerial finance*. Springer, Cham. 97-106.
- Scott, M. and Bruce, R. (1987) 'Five Stages of Growth in Small Business'. *Long Range Planning* 20 (3)
- Scott, W. R. (1987) 'The Adolescence of Institutional Theory'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 32 (4), 493-511
- Scott, W. R. (1995) *Institutions and Organizations* [online] . Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Scott, W. R. (2008) *Institutions and Organizations: Ideas, Interests, and Identities* [online] . Los Angeles: Sage Publications
- Selsky, J. W. (1998) 'Developmental Dynamics in Nonprofit-Sector Federations'. *Voluntas: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations* 9 (3)
- Selznick, P. (1957) 'Law and the Structures of Social Action'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 2 (2), 258-261
- Senaux, B. (2008) 'A Stakeholder Approach to Football Club Governance'. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing* 4 (1), 4-17
- Senn, A. E. (1999) *Power, Politics, and the Olympic Game* [online] . London: Human Kinetics Publishers
- Shaw, S. and Hoeber, L. (2016) 'Unclipping our Wings: Ways Forward in Qualitative Research in Sport Management'. *Sport Management Review* 19 (3)
- Shilbury, D. (2016, September). Keynote address: Global sport governance challenges: A research opportunity. Paper presented at the 24th Annual European Association for Sport Management Conference, Warsaw, Poland.
- Shilbury, D., Ferkins, L., and Smythe, L. (2013) 'Sport Governance Encounters: Insights from Lived Experiences'. *Sport Management Review* 16 (3)
- Shilbury, D., O'Boyle, I., and Ferkins, L. (2016) 'Towards a Research Agenda in Collaborative Sport Governance'. *Sport Management Review* 19 (5)
- Shim, S., Eastlick, M. A., and Lotz, S. (2000) 'Examination of US Hispanic-Owned, Small Retail and Service Businesses: An Organizational Life Cycle Approach'. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services* 7 (1)
- Sky Sports (2015) FIFA needs to be replaced by a new organisation, says David Dein [online] available from <https://www.skysports.com/football/news/12040/10048984/fifa-needs-to-be-replaced-by-a-new-organisation-says-david-dein> [10 May 2019]
- Slack, T. (2003) *The Commercialisation of Sport* [online] . London: Routledge
- Slack, T. (ed.) (2005). *The commercialisation of sport*. Oxford: Routledge.
- Slack, T. and Hinings, B. (1992) 'Institutional Pressures and Isomorphic Change: An Empirical Test'. *Organization Studies* 15 (6), 803-827
- Slack, T. and Parent, M. M. (2006) *Understanding Sport Organizations: The Application of Organization Theory* [online] . London: Human Kinetics
- Smircich, L. (1983) 'Concepts of Culture and Organizational Analysis'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 28 (3)
- Smith, A. C. T. and Shilbury, D. (2004) 'Mapping Cultural Dimensions in Australian Sporting Organisations'. *Sport Management Review* 7 (2)
- Smith, A. C. T. and Westerbeek, H. M. (2007) 'Sport as a Vehicle for Deploying Corporate Social Responsibility'. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship* 25 (1), 43-54
- Smith, K. G., Mitchell, T. R., and Summer, C. E. (1985) 'Top Level Management Priorities in Different Stages of the Organizational Life Cycle'. *Academy of Management Journal* 28 (4)
- Smith, M. F. (2010) *Research Methods in Sport* [online] . London: Sage
- Smith, N. R. and Miner, J. B. (1983) 'Type of Entrepreneur, Type of Firm, and Managerial Motivation: Implications for Organizational Life Cycle Theory'. *Strategic Management Journal* 4 (4)
- Souza, R. P., Guerreiro, R., and Oliveira, M. P. V. (2015) 'Relationship between the Maturity of Supply Chain Process Management and the Organisational Life Cycle'. *Business Process Management Journal* 21 (3)
- Spillman, L. (2018) 'Meta-Organization Matters'. *Journal of Management Inquiry* 27 (1), 16-20
- St. John, C. (2005) 'Multi-Theoretical Mixed-Level Research in Strategy Management'. in *Research Methodology in Strategy and Management*. ed. by Ketchen, D. and Bergh, D. London: Elsevier. 197-223.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). The art of case study research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.



- Steane, P. and Christie, M. (2001) 'Nonprofit Boards in Australia: A Distinctive Governance Approach'. *Corporate Governance* 9 (1)
- Steinberg, R. (2010) 'Principal-agent theory and nonprofit accountability'. in *Comparative Corporate Governance of Non-profit Organizations*. ed. by K. J. Hopt and T. von Hippel. Cambridge, University Press. 73-126.
- Steurer, R. (2013) 'Disentangling Governance: A Synoptic View of Regulation by Government, Business and Civil Society'. *Policy Sciences* 46 (4)
- Stolle, D. and Rochon, T. R. (1998) 'Are all Associations Alike? Member Diversity, Associational Type, and the Creation of Social Capital'. *American Behavioral Scientist* 42 (1), 47-65
- Stone, M. M. and Ostrower, F. (2007) 'Acting in the Public Interest? another Look at Research on Nonprofit Governance'. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 36 (3), 416-438
- Storm, R. K. and Nielsen, K. (2012) 'Soft Budget Constraints in Professional Football'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 12 (2)
- Streeck, W. and Schmitter, P. C. (1985) 'Community, Market, State-and Associations? the Prospective Contribution of Interest Governance to Social Order'. *European Sociological Review* 1 (2), 119-138
- Su, S., Baird, K., and Schoch, H. (2013) 'Management Control Systems from an Organisational Life Cycle Perspective: The Role of Input, Behaviour and Output Controls'. *Journal of Management & Organization* 19 (5)
- Suchman, M. C. (1995) 'Managing Legitimacy: Strategic and Institutional Approaches'. *Academy of Management Review* 20 (3)
- Tacon, R., Walters, G., and Cornforth, C. (2017) 'Accountability in Nonprofit Governance: A Process-Based Study'. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 46 (4), 685-704
- Tam, S. and Gray, D. E. (2016) 'Organisational Learning and the Organisational Life Cycle'. *European Journal of Training and Development* 40 (1)
- Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. (2010) *The Sage Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behaviour Research* [online] 2nd edn. Thousand Oaks: Sage
- Tenenbaum, G. and Driscoll, M. P. (2005) *Methods of Research in Sport Sciences: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches* [online] . Oxford: Meyer&Meyer
- The FA (2016) *The History of the FA* [online] available from <http://www.thefa.com/about-football-association/history> [9 February 2016]
- Theeboom, M., Schailée, H., and Nols, Z. (2012) 'Social Capital Development among Ethnic Minorities in Mixed and Separate Sport Clubs'. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* 4 (1)
- Toubiana, M., Oliver, C., and Bradshaw, P. (2017) 'Beyond Differentiation and Integration: The Challenges of Managing Internal Complexity in Federations'. *Organization Studies* 38 (8), 1013-1037
- Treib, O., Bähr, H., and Falkner, G. (2007) 'Modes of Governance: Towards a Conceptual Clarification'. *Journal of European Public Policy* 14 (1)
- Tsoukas, H. and Knudsen, C. (2003) *The Oxford Handbook of Organisation Theory: Meta-Theoretical Perspectives* [online] . Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Twycross, A. and Shields, L. (2008) 'Content Analysis'. *Paediatric Nursing* 20 (6)
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H., and Bondas, T. (2013) 'Content Analysis and Thematic Analysis: Implications for Conducting a Qualitative Descriptive Study'. *Nursing & Health Sciences* 15 (3)
- Vale, J., Branco, M. C., and Ribeiro, J. (2016) 'Individual Intellectual Capital Versus Collective Intellectual Capital in a Meta-Organization'. *Journal of Intellectual Capital* 17 (2)
- Van Puyvelde, S., Caers, R., Du Bois, C., and Jegers, M. (2012) 'The Governance of Nonprofit Organizations: Integrating Agency Theory with Stakeholder and Stewardship Theories'. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly* 41 (3), 431-451
- Van Waarden, F. (1992) 'Emergence and Development of Business Interest Associations. an Example from the Netherlands'. *Organization Studies* 13 (4), 521-561
- Vifell, Å C. and Thedvall, R. (2012) 'Organizing for Social Sustainability: Governance through Bureaucratization in Meta-Organizations'. *Sustainability: Science, Practice and Policy* 8 (1)
- Vollmer, H. M. and Mills, D. L. (1966). *Professionalisation*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Vollmer, H.M. and Mills, D.L. (1966) *Professionalization*. Melno Park: Stanford Research
- Vos, S., Breesch, D., Késenne, S., Van Hoecke, J., Vanreusel, B., and Scheerder, J. (2011) 'Governmental Subsidies and Coercive Pressures. Evidence from Sport Clubs and their Resource Dependencies'. *European Journal for Sport and Society* 8 (4)
- Wagner, U. (2011) 'Towards the Construction of the World Anti-Doping Agency: Analyzing the Approaches of FIFA and the IAAF to Doping in Sport'. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 11 (5)
- Walters, G. (2009) 'Corporate Social Responsibility through Sport'. *Journal of Corporate Citizenship* 35 (1), 81-94

- Wang, G. and Singh, P. (2014) 'The Evolution of CEO Compensation Over the Organizational Life Cycle: A Contingency Explanation'. *Human Resource Management Review* 24 (2)
- Warren, R. L. (1967) 'The Interorganizational Field as a Focus for Investigation'. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 12 (3), 396-419
- Webb, J. (2018, June). Contributing to a sustainable city by organising as a meta-organisation. In *ISPIM Innovation Symposium* (pp. 1-15). The International Society for Professional Innovation Management (ISPIM).
- Weiss, J. W. (2014) *Business Ethics: A Stakeholder and Issues Management Approach* [online] . San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler
- Wickham, M. and Woods, M. (2005) 'Reflecting on the Strategic use of CAQDAS to Manage and Report on the Qualitative Research Process'. *The Qualitative Report* 10 (4), 687-702
- Williamson, O. E. (1975) *Markets and Hierarchies* [online] . New York: Free Press
- Winand, M. and Anagnostopoulos, C. (2019) *Research Handbook on Sport Governance* [online] : Edward Elgar Publishing
- Winn, M. I. (2001) 'Building Stakeholder Theory with a Decision Modeling Methodology'. *Business & Society* 40 (2), 133-166
- Wolfe, R. A. and Putler, D. S. (2002) 'How Tight are the Ties that Bind Stakeholder Groups?'. *Organization Science* 13 (1)
- Woods, M., Macklin, R., and Lewis, G. K. (2016) 'Researcher Reflexivity: Exploring the Impacts of CAQDAS Use'. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology* 19 (4)
- Wooten, M. and Hoffman, A. J. (2008) 'Organizational Fields: Past, Present and Future'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Institutionalism*. ed. by Greenwood, R., Oliver, , and Suddaby, R. London: Sage, 131-147
- Wu, X. and Ramesh, M. (2014) 'Market Imperfections, Government Imperfections, and Policy Mixes: Policy Innovations in Singapore'. *Policy Sciences* 47 (3)
- Yanow, D. and Ybema, S. (2009) 'Interpretivism in Organizational Research: On elephants and Blind Researchers'. in *The Sage Handbook of Organizational Research Methods*. ed. by Buchanan, D. and Bryman, A. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. 39-60.
- Yazdifar, H., Askarany, D., Nasser, A., and Moradi, M. (2013) 'A Processual Approach Towards Studying Management Accounting Change'. *Journal of Accounting – Business & Management* 19 (2), 44-58
- Yeh, C. M. and Taylor, T. (2008) 'Issues of Governance in Sport Organisations: A Question of Board Size, Structure and Roles'. *World Leisure Journal* 50 (1)
- Yin, R. K. (2014) *Case Study Research: Design and Method* [online] 5th edn. London: Sage
- Yolles, M., Fink, G., Iles, P., and Sawagvudcharee, O. (2011) 'Generating Corporate Life Cycles from the Paradigm Life Cycle'. *SSRN Electronic Journal*
- Zamawe, F. C. (2015) 'The Implication of using NVivo Software in Qualitative Data Analysis: Evidence-Based Reflections'. *Malawi Medical Journal* 27 (1)

## 8. Appendix

### Battle of Sochi

Letter signed by various ASOIF members expressing their disagreement with the views of Vizer

Content removed on data protection grounds

### **Vizer's speech (by Inside The Games)**

Vizer used his opening speech at SportAccord's General Assembly to accuse Bach of trying to block projects he has tried to introduce, criticised the launch of the Olympic TV Channel as a waste of money and accused the IOC of lack of transparency and claimed that Agenda 2020 had brought "hardly any benefit" to sport. Vizer also called for International Federations to be given a greater say in the future of the IOC and for a fairer distribution of money.

"I made a number of proposals in favor and for the benefit of IFs and SportAccord but we have never received a positive reaction. Mr. President, stop blocking the SportAccord strategy in its mission to identify and organise conventions and multi-sport games."

The hostility between the two men dates back to Vizer's proposal more than two years ago to launch the United World Games, an event that would combine the major championships of several sports in the same country during the same period. Vizer also believes that Bach has set out to undermine the SportAccord Convention, his organisation's main fundraising event of the year, by preventing cities bidding for the Olympics from making presentations and by withdrawing a meeting of the IOC's ruling Executive Board which has always been held alongside the event since it was first launched in 2003.

"The voting for potential host cities of the Olympic Games is compromised," Vizer said.

"Key stakeholders are excluded from making informed decisions when selecting Olympic host cities: the bid cities cannot present their candidatures at SportAccord Convention to all stakeholders, IOC members cannot visit bid cities and during the IOC Session, when the vote takes place, IF presidents - who are organisers of the Olympic Games, are obliged to leave the room."

"The Agenda 2020 was promoted as a platform, which would bring reforms to the world of sport and benefits for all stakeholders," he said.

"However, the interests of the International Federations were not properly addressed.

"The Agenda 2020 hardly brings any real benefit to sport, to IFs, or athletes.

"It did not bring about more clear criteria, rules and principles."

The Olympic TV Channel, one of the key proposals of Agenda 2020, was dismissed as having no clear business plan and strategy and was criticised for spending more than \$450 million.

"The IOC Members voted in December 2014, in the IOC Session, unilaterally, without a clear business plan, a commercialisation plan and project, to reduce the dividends to International Federations in order to establish the Olympic Channel."

"Why invest hundreds of millions of dollars in Opening and Closing ceremonies, while millions of athletes live in hunger and they don't stand a chance in sport due to the lack of proper conditions?"

"If indeed the IOC distributes \$3.25 million a day, every day of the year, for the development of sport worldwide, why do millions of athletes suffer and cannot enjoy or reach performances in sport?"

"Together, SportAccord and IOC must find a solution to compensate National Federations and athletes from their events."

"Today, the money invested in sport never reaches the athletes and their families."

"SportAccord and the International Federations are already providing prize money to their athletes in competitions, in an effort to compensate for this."

"According to the Olympic Charter, the total number of IOC Members may not exceed 115, out of which only 45 are the ones directly involved in sport: 15 representatives of the IFs, 15 of the NOCs, 15 of the athletes," said Vizer, who is not an IOC member.

"This minority is the real royalty of the sport."

"In spite of this, during any vote, they can never determine change. In order to protect the real interests of sport, the majority of votes should belong to people in functions or offices related directly to sport."

### **Bach's Response**

"I have been a little longer after this friendly welcome," he told delegates. "What we need altogether is credibility. This credibility we can only achieve if we have unity in our diversity. I invite you to bring your diverse opinions to the table but then be united in our concerted effort."

## **Primary data – Interview transcript example**

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds



Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

Content removed on data protection grounds

## **Examples of archival data**

78th Session – 1976 Montreal

IOC created an eligibility commission, to determine whether an athlete was amateur and not professional.

However, this policy of the IOC resulted in IFs adopting two separate regimes of classifying their athletes into amateur and professional categories:

*“...the Commission finds that some International Federations administer two sets of rules, one for competitors taking part in the Olympic Games and one for competitors taking part in other international competitions under the regime of the International Federations.”*

*“This form of two sets of ruling may very well complicate the situation for the active competitor,, who in his sports life fully obeys the broader kind of amateur rules of his International Federation but places himself in a difficult situation when later in his sports career he is banned from future participation in the Olympic Games.”*

*“The increasing commercialisation in sport is well known; higher and higher prices are offered to competitors in Olympic sports for all kinds of advertising. It is to be foreseen that many competitors in the future will not be able to resist such offers, and by accepting they will debar themselves from taking part in the Games.*

*This may in the long run result in "second rate" competitors coming to the Games!*

*Furthermore this development may force several of the International Federations to broaden their Rules even more, and the gap between the two sets of rules will increase.*

*The ICC Eligibility Commission has informed the ICC Executive Board of this undesirable tendency which, unless brought to the attention of the International. Federation concerned may very well be spread and adopted by others.”*

*The IOC Executive Board deemed it necessary that the request of sports not adopted on the Olympic programme should be examined on the basis of objective criteria, and these sports and their International Federations respectively might receive recognition from the IOC according to their compliance with the necessary requirements.*

*This recognition does not necessarily mean that the sport concerned will be adopted on the programme of the Olympic Games, but it may encourage the IFs directing the given sports, to follow their activity according to the IOC rules and principles.*

*"in order to further the development of a sport, the IOC can recognise its international governing body provided the sport complies with the criteria for such sports mentioned in the*

*Bye-Laws of the IOC Rule Book. Recognised sports are entitled to participate in the programme of Continental and Regional Games receiving the patronage of the IOC".*